JAPAN VIII

THE FIGHT FOR SUPREMACY IN ASIA

(The Japanese Break the Chinese Power at Ping Yang)

From a painting by the contemporary American artist, J. Steeple Davis

UP to twenty years ago, China was universally regarded as the chief power in the Far East. But the Japanese, though outnumbered by the Chinese more than ten to one, had adopted modern modes of living and fighting. Moreover they were and are fired by an intense spirit of patriotism, wholly unknown in China. Hence when China had by procrastination, insult, and indifference roused the Japanese to anger, they did not hesitate to declare war against her in 1894.

The immediate cause of dispute was Corea, sovereignty over which was claimed by both the contestants. The main battle of the war was thus fought on Corean ground, outside the city of Ping Yang. This the Chinese had strongly fortified. Its walls were high and it was surrounded by a chain of forts, chief of them being the Fort Botandai, shown in our picture as towering on a hilltop above the other forts. The Japanese attacked these defences like madmen, storming one fort after another, until finally Botandai itself was carried by assault. Then the resolute assailants attacked the city. A band of heroes clambered up the walls in face of a murderous fire, drove back the defenders, leaped down inside, and broke open the main gate for their comrades. Less than ten men of this scaling party were still alive when the gate opened. After that the Chinese fled. This battle established unmistakably the military supremacy of the Japanese. The war made them the chief power of the East.

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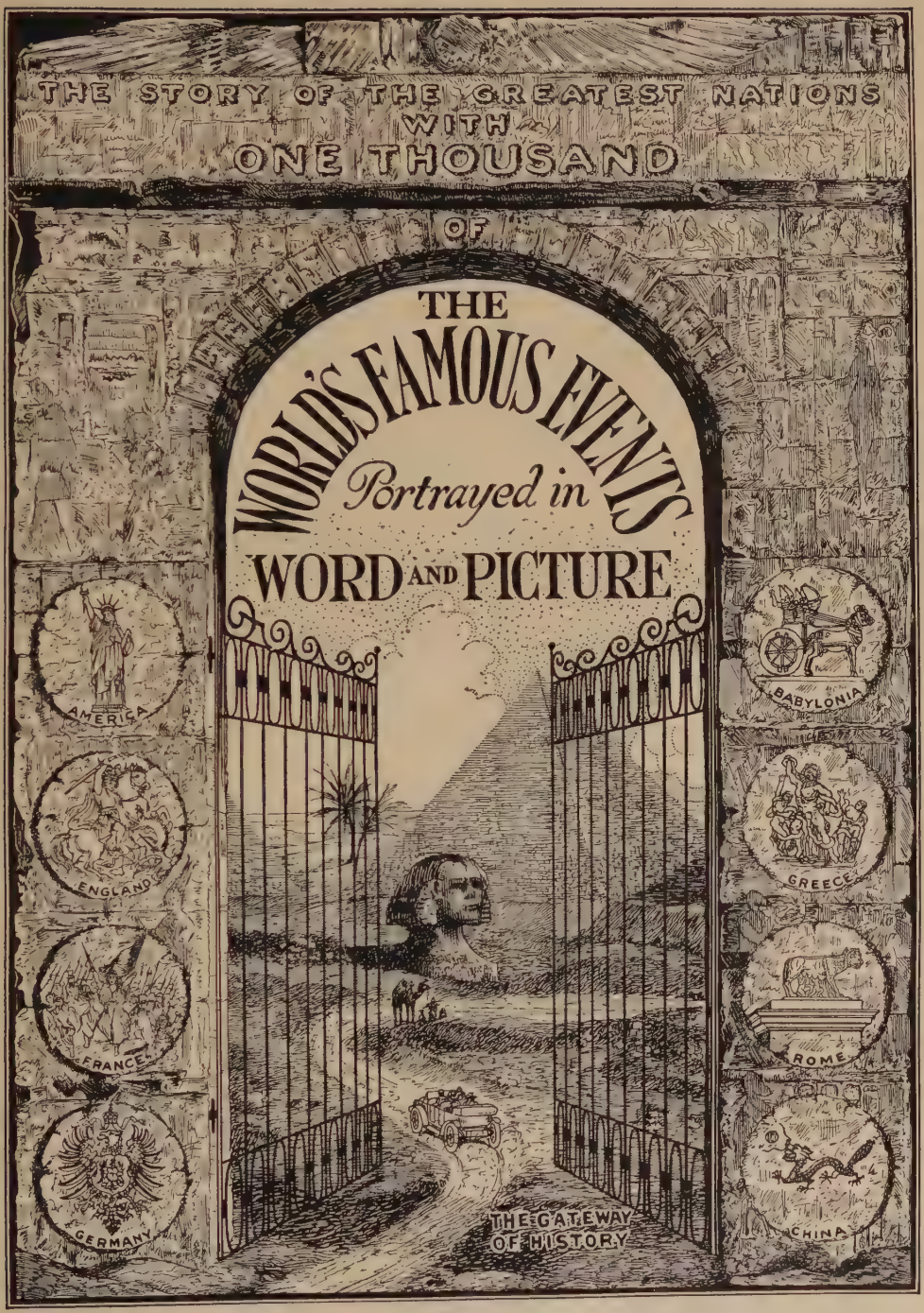
THE STORY OF THE GREATEST NATIONS
WITH
ONE THOUSAND
OF
THE
WORLD'S FAMOUS EVENTS
Portrayed in
WORD AND PICTURE
AMERICA
ENGLAND
FRANCE
GERMANY
BABYLONIA
GREECE
ROME
CHINA
THE GATEWAY OF HISTORY

The Story of the Greatest Nations

A COMPREHENSIVE HISTORY, EXTENDING FROM THE EARLIEST TIMES TO THE PRESENT, FOUNDED ON THE MOST MODERN AUTHORITIES, AND INCLUDING CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARIES AND PRONOUNCING VOCABULARIES FOR EACH NATION

And

The World's Famous Events

TOLD IN A SERIES OF BRIEF SKETCHES FORMING A SINGLE CONTINUOUS STORY OF HISTORY AND ILLUMINED BY A COMPLETE SERIES OF NOTABLE ILLUSTRATIONS FROM THE GREAT HISTORIC PAINTINGS OF ALL LANDS

By

EDWARD S. ELLIS, A.M.

AND

CHARLES F. HORNE, PH.D.

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CONTENTS—VOLUME VIII.

MODERN NATIONS.

CHINA.

PAGE

CHAPTER CXL.—THE EARLY DAYS, ... 1345

CHAPTER CXLI.—THE LAST DYNASTY OF CHINESE EMPERORS, . . 1358

CHAPTER CXLII.—THE RULE OF THE MANCHU TARTARS, . . . 1363

CHAPTER CXLIII.—THE OPIUM WAR—CHINA HELPLESS AGAINST EUROPE, 1372

CHAPTER CXLIV.—THE TAIPING REBELLION AND AGGRESSION BY FOREIGN POWERS, ... 1379

CHAPTER CXLV.—THE EMPRESS DOWAGER AND LI HUNG CHANG, . 1386

CHAPTER CXLVI.—THE BOXER OUTBREAK, ... 1396

CHAPTER CXLVII.—"ON TO PEKING!" 1408

CHRONOLOGY OF CHINA, ... 1419

RULERS OF CHINA, ... 1422

PRONOUNCING VOCABULARY FOR CHINA, ... 1424

JAPAN.

CHAPTER CXLVIII.—ANCIENT JAPAN, ... 1425

CHAPTER CXLIX.—JAPAN IN THE MIDDLE AGES, ... 1431

CHAPTER CL.—THE UNITED STATES BREAKS DOWN THE JAPANESE WALL, 1437

CHAPTER CLI.—JAPAN'S WONDERFUL ADVANCE, ... 1448

CHAPTER CLII.—THE CHINESE WAR—THE CAMPAIGN IN COREA, . . 1455

PAGE

Chapter CLIII.—The Campaign in China, ... 1468

Chapter CLIV.—The Present and the Future, ... 1475

Chronology of Japan, ... 1483

Emperors of Japan, ... 1486

Pronouncing Vocabulary for Japan, ... 1488

UNITED STATES.

Chapter I.—The Discoverers of America, ... 1491

Chapter II.—The Explorers of the United States, ... 1497

Chapter III.—The Colonies that Failed, ... 1503

Chapter IV.—The Colonies that Succeeded—Virginia, . . . 1509

Chapter V.—The Dutch in New York, ... 1517

Chapter VI.—The Pilgrims at Plymouth, ... 1523

Chapter VII.—Massachusetts Bay, ... 1529

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS—VOLUME VIII.

	TO FACE PAGE
The Fight for Supremacy in Asia,	*Frontispiece*
Confucius Driven Into Exile,	1346
The Great Wall of China,	1348
At the Height of Empire,	1352
The Coming of the Mongols,	1354
The Fall of the Mongols,	1360
Europe Enters China,	1364
The Dutch Visit Nanking,	1368
The Manchus Invited into China,	1370
A Disastrous Invasion,	1374
Europe's First Blow at China,	1376
The Opium War Begins,	1380
Hong Kong Ceded to England,	1382
The English at the Heart of China,	1388
Advance of the Taipings,	1390
The Storming of Peking,	1392
The French in Indo-China,	1398
Kwang-Su's Authority Proclaimed,	1400
War with Japan,	1402
Admiral Ting's Surrender,	1404
Li Hung Chang in Europe,	1410
Preparing Against the Boxers,	1412
Europe Makes War on China,	1414
The Fall of Colonel Liscum,	1416
"On to Peking!"	1426
The Storming of Peking,	1428
The Return of the Empress,	1432
The Chinese Rebellion,	1434
Japan's Aborigines,	1438
Amaterasu,	1440

TO FACE PAGE

Nintoku Pities the Japanese, ... 1442
Hideyoshi Defies the Chinese, ... 1444
The First Americans in Japan, ... 1450
The First Foreign Resident, ... 1452
Signing the American Treaty, ... 1454
Kagoshima Bombarded, ... 1456
The Fall of Hitosubashi, ... 1458
Leaders of Modern Japan, ... 1460
Japan in Corea, ... 1462
The War with China, ... 1464
The First Land Battle, ... 1466
Ping-Yang, ... 1468
The Flight of the Chinese, ... 1470
The First Great Modern Naval Battle, ... 1472
The Japanese in China, ... 1474
Capture of Wei-Hai-Wei, ... 1476
China Sues for Peace, ... 1478
The First Seafight with Russia, ... 1480
The Peace Treaty, ... 1482
The Dream of Columbus, ... 1492
Columbus before Isabella, ... 1494
The Mutiny, ... 1498
The Discovery of America, ... 1500
The Return of Columbus, ... 1504
Death of Columbus, ... 1506
De Soto Explores the United States, ... 1510
Pocahontas, ... 1512
The Shipload of Wives, ... 1514
John Smith in New England, ... 1518
Hudson Enters New York Bay, ... 1524
The Purchase of Manhattan, ... 1526
The End of Dutch Rule, ... 1530
The Puritans Leave Holland, ... 1532
Settlement of New England, ... 1534

EARLY TARTAR WANDERERS INVADING CHINA

THE STORY OF THE GREATEST NATIONS

MODERN NATIONS—CHINA

Chapter CXL

THE EARLY DAYS

[*Authorities:* Joseph Walton, "China and the Present Crisis"; Dr. William Speer, "The Oldest and the Newest Empire"; Boulger, "History of China"; Douglas, "China"; Norman, "Peoples and Politics of the Far East"; Curzon, "Problems of the Far East"; Wilson, "The Ever Victorious Army"; Loch "Narrative of Events in China"; Wells Williams, "The Middle Kingdom," "A History of China"; Savage Landor, "China and the Allies"; Du Bose, "The Dragon, Image and Demon"; Mossman, "The Taeping Rebellion."]

CHINA is one of the most interesting countries in the world. Its population is five times that of the United States, and this vast number of people live under the same government, have the same laws, speak the same language, and study the same literature. They have had a longer national existence than any people of ancient or modern times.

The origin of the Chinese, like that of every people, is lost in the mists of antiquity. Their traditions extend back to Noah, and their first ruler of whom mention is made was Fu-hi, whose reign corresponded with the latter half of the life of Noah. His son, or successor, was Shin-nung, or Shin the husbandman, which some think may have been Shem. The chronological system of China, which moves in cycles of sixty years, corresponds with the

CONFUCIUS DRIVEN INTO EXILE

(The Sage With a Few Faithful Followers Abandons a Corrupt Court)

Redrawn by Mme. Paule Crampel from an old Chinese ink sketch

THE early religious faith of the Chinese is not clear to us, because it was all changed and much of it forgotten in the spiritual revolution caused by Confucius. This remarkable sage lived about five hundred years before Christ, at a time when the ancient Chinese civilization had fallen into disorder and the empire was almost disrupted. The real civilization was confined to the central provinces of Ho-nan and Shantung. Here Confucius early won a reputation for wisdom, energy and piety. He then travelled through the surrounding provinces preaching his doctrines. Several of the semi-independent princes became his disciples, and he established himself as guide and director at the court of the most powerful among them, the Prince of Lu.

So greatly did this state prosper under Confucius' wisdom, that the other princes became afraid lest Lu should dominate the empire. They therefore prepared a most splendid train of gay young women and sent them to Lu. Its prince was so fascinated that he neglected Confucius and ignored his advice. So the sage left the court in sorrow, hoping against hope that he would be recalled. Instead Confucius fell into a life of sorrow. He was driven from other courts and wandered with only a few faithful followers into exile. In his old age he was called back to Lu, but lived there in retirement writing his books of religious teaching. After his death these became universally accepted, and Confucianism is the faith of most Chinamen to-day.

VIII-4

in his twenty-third year, was the cause of his first solemn act as a moral reformer. There was an ancient law, greatly fallen into disuse, which required children upon the death of either of their parents, to resign all public employments. The conscientious Confucius could not refuse to comply with this requirement. His countrymen were amazed by the splendor and solemnity of the burial ceremony in honor of his mother, and so deep was the impression produced that the beautiful custom spread throughout the empire and has continued to the present day.

Young as was Confucius, the people came to look upon him as their highest authority on ancient laws and customs, and he began speaking as such authority. He insisted upon the necessity of stated acts of homage and respect toward the dead, either at the grave, or in a part of the dwelling-house consecrated for the purpose. To his teachings are due the "hall of ancestors" and the anniversary feasts of the dead which are still common in China.

He commenced to instruct his countrymen in the precepts of morality, his most forcible lesson being his own example. His believers steadily increased, for the practical character of his philosophy became apparent to all. With deep faith in his mission, he began travelling through various states, proclaiming his doctrines, and in some places accepting employment as a public reformer. When he returned to Lu, his reputation and influence had become so great that among his followers were more than five hundred nobles or mandarins. A peculiar tribute to the inherent worth of the teachings of this great man was that most of his disciples, instead of being gathered from the young and ardent, who are easily swayed by excitement, were middle-aged, sober, and grave.

The rigid morality of Confucius leavened the social life, and his admiring monarch conferred the highest dignities upon him; but the appearance at court of a number of gay young women overturned everything; and disgusted and half despairing, the philosopher resumed his travels in search of more inflexible disciples. But the tide had turned for evil, and wherever he went, he met only opposition. His teachings involved too much self-denial and stern morality to be acceptable. He was persecuted, imprisoned, and more than once almost suffered the pangs of starvation. In the end, he gave up all hope of benefiting his countrymen during his lifetime, and set to work to do so after his death. He went back to Lu, in the depths of poverty; and all the years that remained to him were devoted to the composition of the literary works that have made his name immortal.

Confucius died 479 B.C. when he was over seventy years of age. Almost from the hour he ceased to breathe, he began to be venerated, and the passing centuries have added to his fame. His family has continued through more than

sixty generations in the very place where their ancestor lived, and is distinguished by various honors and privileges, forming the only example of hereditary aristocracy in China. In every city, down to those of the third order, there is a temple to his honor, and the 18th day of the second moon is kept sacred as the anniversary of his death.

The system of Confucius is not really a religion, but rather a system of social and political life, built upon a slight foundation of philosophy. Within it is no trace of a personal God, though there are a number of allusions to a certain heavenly agency or power, whose outward emblem is the visible firmament, but the most enlightened of Chinese scholars regard this as only a verbal personification of "the ever-present Law and Order and Intelligence, which seem to breathe amid the wonderful activities of physical creation, in the measured circuit of the seasons, in the alternation of light and darkness, in the ebb and flow of tides, and in the harmonious and majestic revolutions of the heavenly bodies."

Confucius seems to have been baffled in his attempts to comprehend that behind the all-varying phenomena of nature is an intelligent Cause or Creator. He regarded the universe as a mechanism, self-sustaining, and inconceivable in its immensity. He believed all things existed from eternity, and were subject to a flux and reflux, in obedience to initial laws impressed upon them, but when, why and how are beyond the reach of human conception. "I teach you nothing," he says, "but what you might learn yourselves—the observance of the three fundamental laws of relation between sovereign and subject, father and child, husband and wife; and the five capital virtues—universal charity, impartial justice, conformity to ceremony and established usages, rectitude of heart and mind, and pure sincerity."

In our present day, the Chinese have three forms of religion, Confucianism, Buddhism, and Taoism. Taoism is native, Buddhism was introduced from India. Formerly there was much strife among the three religions for ascendancy, but that ended long ago and they live in harmony side by side. Many profess all three, which is not inconsistent, since they supplement one another. Confucianism is defined as the basis of the social life and political system of China, and it is the faith of the greatest men and the educated classes. Buddhism, though prevailing more or less throughout the entire country, has been losing ground for a long time, and its devotees are now the ignorant, the women, and the aged. By the educated people it is held in contempt. Much the same may be said of Taoism, which practises a mystic alchemy, uses spells and incantations, and like our modern Spiritists claims to hold intercourse with the dead.

The more ignorant Chinese believe the earth was created by Panku, the first

THE GREAT WALL OF CHINA

(The Vast Structure Built 200 B.C. to Shut China From the Outer World)

After a photograph in Western China

SOME two centuries after the death of Confucius, the disjointed Chinese provinces were all reunited into a single empire, such as had probably once existed many centuries before. The reunion was achieved by a prince of the province of Tsin, who made himself emperor and thus founded the Tsin dynasty or empire. The greatest of its early rulers was Shih, who was called the "first universal emperor," because he extended his power over all the Chinese Empire as we know it to-day.

Shih also built that marvelous structure long classed among the wonders of the world, the "Great Wall" of China. The wild Tartars of northern Asia came ever and again in savage hordes to ravage China, just as a few centuries later they ravaged Europe. It was impossible to hunt down these horsemen aeross the vast deserts where they hid; so, to prevent their incursions, Shih started the huge wall which runs without a break for over two thousand miles along the northern frontier of old China. To the military forces of those days the wall, with the garrisons kept along it, was wholly impassable; and China was relieved from the Tartars, who perforce, turned their attention westward to the European races.

Thus secured from external invasion China grew ever more exclusive, a nation dependent wholly upon itself. Wars there were, but civil wars, province fighting against province, rival princes striving to seize the imperal throne. Thus dynasty after dynasty rose and fell.

VIII-5

man, a little dwarfish being, who, finding himself in a chaos of rock, took a hammer and chisel and began to hew out the hollow between earth and sky. Sometimes his strokes cut clear through the roof and made the holes through which we see the stars. Panku worked eighteen thousand years, and ever as he worked grew larger, until he was a vast giant. Dying he gave his body to clothe the naked rocks and become the earth. The fields are his flesh, the rivers his blood. Men are sprung from the flies that fed upon his dead form.

A strange proof of Chinese religious toleration was the discovery, in modern times, of a colony of Jews in the heart of China, where their legends show they have lived since before the birth of the Saviour. Their home was on the Yellow River, amid the densest population of the country. They were first noted by a Jesuit priest in 1625, and within late years have been frequently visited by Protestant missionaries. Where they came from no one knows. They live in the city of Kai-fung, and by many are believed to be the descendants of one of the Lost Tribes of Israel. They seem never to have heard of the coming of Christ or the destruction of Jerusalem, but have always kept the Passover, and much of the Old Testament in Hebrew has been obtained from the rabbis.

After the days of Confucius the kings of Tsin grew in power, until in 255 B.C. one of them brought the other states under subjection, and superseding the Chow dynasty took the title of Hoang or emperor.

It was Shih, one of the Tsin emperors, who is said to have built that prodigious structure known as the Great Wall of China, in the third century B.C. Its purpose was to shut out the marauding Tartars. A stupendous army of workmen was necessary for the labor, and to obtain them the emperor ordered that every third toiling man in the empire should give his aid and work without any compensation except sufficient food to support life. The wall, fifteen hundred miles long, reached from the Gulf of Pe-chi-li on the Yellow Sea, to the most western province. It was carried over mountains, through deep valleys, and across broad rivers, where arches were used. The breadth at the top allowed six horsemen to ride abreast, yet the whole structure, with its towers, at brief distances apart, was completed in five years.

It was the same Emperor, Shih, who undertook the remarkable task of wiping out the literature of his country. He was driven to this by the attitude of the learned men, who could find no authority in Confucius for the firm and centralized empire of the Tsins. To end their persistent opposition, Shih ordered every book in the empire, except those on medicine and divination, to be destroyed. Indescribable tumult followed. Many scholars sacrificed their lives for their precious books; but in the end every volume that could be found perished.

The successor of Shih was driven from his throne by a rebellion headed by Kaoti, a valiant leader from the state of Han. Kaoti, to win the support of the men of learning, endeavored to restore the vanished literature. He offered enormous rewards for copies of the ancient books; and slowly some of these reappeared.

During the reigns of the dynasty of Han, as Kaoti's successors were called, the Tartars of the North resumed their troublesome raids. These became so serious that several Chinese emperors wedded their daughters to Tartar chiefs, and the system of bribing them into quiet was inaugurated.

Throughout those trying years, however, the Chinese steadily advanced in civilization and literature, and in the arts and sciences. They manufactured paper toward the close of the first century of the Christian era, and following that as a corollary was the invention of ink. It was made in the form of cakes with which every one is familiar. The India ink has a musky odor, and is used for tattooing purposes. The Chinese, instead of employing pens as we do, use camel's-hair pencils or brushes in forming their hieroglyphical characters.

The change of rulers and dynasties was generally accompanied with as much violence, crime, and bloodshed as if the Chinese were already nominal Christians. The country was divided into the "Three Kingdoms" about A.D. 220, and then a prince appeared strong enough to blend them once more (A.D. 265) with the capital established at Ho-nan. This was the second or later Tsin dynasty, which lasted about a century and a half and was presided over by fifteen emperors. The brief period of tranquillity was followed by another invasion of the Tartar hordes who swept everything before them. The Chinese resisted with desperate bravery and in the end drove the invaders out of their country.

But the Tsin dynasty became corrupt and tyrannical, and in the end was overthrown by Lin-yu, who from a miserable, neglected orphan boy had won his way to the command of the imperial army and compelled the Emperor to abdicate. Tumultuous times followed, blackened by crime and crimsoned with blood. In the following two centuries, five successive families fought their way to the throne and then plunged the country into ruin. During that troublous period, China carried on an important trade with Arabia and Persia, whose caravans made stated journeys to the frontiers, whence they went back laden with silks, a goodly portion of which were sent to Constantinople for the use of the luxurious inhabitants.

Silk was in greater demand than could be supplied, and the Arabian and Persian merchants were paid enormous prices for the goods. But no one could answer the question repeated thousands of times, "How is it made?" Who could dream that the dazzlingly beautiful texture was spun by little insects?

But the wonderful secret was discovered about the middle of the sixth century by two Nestorian monks, who had gone into the distant land as missionaries.

When the emperor Justinian was told the amazing story, he refused to believe it, but the monks convinced him of the truth of the information, and he offered them a large reward to procure some of the silkworms' eggs. They set out on the difficult task, and by concealing the eggs in a bamboo cane, escaped discovery, and reached Constantinople with their invaluable prize. The shrewd men had made themselves acquainted with the art of raising the worms, which in the new and favorable climate and under the excellent conditions, increased rapidly and were parents of the myriads that in time were introduced into the different parts of Europe.

Soon after this, or near the close of the sixth century, the northern and southern kingdoms of China were once more united, with the city of Ho-nan as the capital. Order was restored and the reign of the new and illustrious sovereigns called the Tang began in A.D. 618.

They re-established the old system of absolute government, the first emperor being Li-yuen, most of whose reign was spent in subduing rebellions that continually cropped out in almost every part of the empire. He did his work well, and, so soon as he saw it was completed, and a career of prosperity had opened for his country, he abdicated in favor of his son the great Tai-tsung, who was one of the most illustrious sovereigns that ever presided over the destinies of the Chinese empire.

Tai-tsung led forth an expedition which completely crushed the Tartar tribes. He was wise, prudent, generous, just, and a patriot whose highest ambition was the welfare of his people. Under his beneficent rule, education and the arts flourished, and men of learning filled all the high offices. Literature had long been neglected because of war, and to aid in its revival, Tai-tsung established an academy within the precincts of the palace, where the most eminent professors gave instruction to thousands of students. In addition, he founded a school of archery, which he attended in order to perfect himself in the art so necessary for the welfare of the empire.

Fortunate is that country with a Washington, a Lincoln, a Victoria, a Bolivar, or a Tai-tsung. The emperor gave his efforts toward improving the condition of the lower orders. He lessened their taxes and sent commissioners into all the provinces to learn whether the poor were oppressed by the magistrates. He made the offence of bribery punishable with death, and when the guilt of a magistrate was proved, he showed him no mercy.

While Tai-tsung was emperor, several Christian missionaries of the Nestorian Church visited China. They were received in the most friendly manner by the emperor, who gave them full liberty to build all the churches they

desired and to preach wherever they pleased. They labored with great zeal and made many converts, some of them of elevated rank.

The emperor Tai-tsung reigned twenty-three years, and died mourned by his subjects, who looked upon him as a model of all that was wise and good. Long ago as it is that he passed away, many of his proverbs and maxims are repeated by his admiring countrymen, who justly regard his reign as one of the most illustrious in the annals of the empire. The majority of the successors of Tai-tsung, although less brilliant than he, were worthy rulers, and the country for a long time was tranquil and prosperous.

Among the great public works of the seventh century were a number of canals, constructed to aid inland commerce, which they did to a marked degree. It was the sixth emperor of the Tang dynasty who founded the Han-lin College, which is still the chief literary establishment of the empire and the oldest in the world. From its members are generally chosen the ministers of state, and from them all the successful candidates for honors receive their degrees. In our own country, the universities and colleges are continually developing and adding to their course of study, so that a young man with the education of a graduate of a hundred years ago could not pass the entrance examination to-day; but, it is characteristic of Chinese methods, that the curriculum of Han-lin College is the same now as it was a thousand years ago, though one or two studies have been added within the last few years. When the institution was founded, the professors were well in advance of any in Europe, but they have long since drifted far behind.

During the Tang dynasty, the Arabs were more prosperous, wealthy and civilized than any other western Asiatic nation. Many of their opulent merchants reached China and made their homes in Canton, where they were permitted to have a magistrate of the Mahometan faith to rule over them. An ancient mosque still stands in Canton as a proof of the liberality of the mediæval Chinese in all matters pertaining to religion; and Mahomet still has his followers in every part of the empire. They are mainly, however, of Tartar origin.

It was toward the close of the ninth century that the atrocious custom of binding the feet of female infants, so as to prevent their growth, was adopted. This shocking practice, which makes cripples of the women for life and is the cause of frightful suffering during the three years the feet undergo their constriction, probably originated through flattery of an empress proud of her tiny feet. Fortunately, the poor cannot afford to have their children thus abused, but the practice is universal among those of rank, who would consider it excessively vulgar to be able to walk like ordinary human beings.

The Tang dynasty degenerated and finally perished in the year 907. A

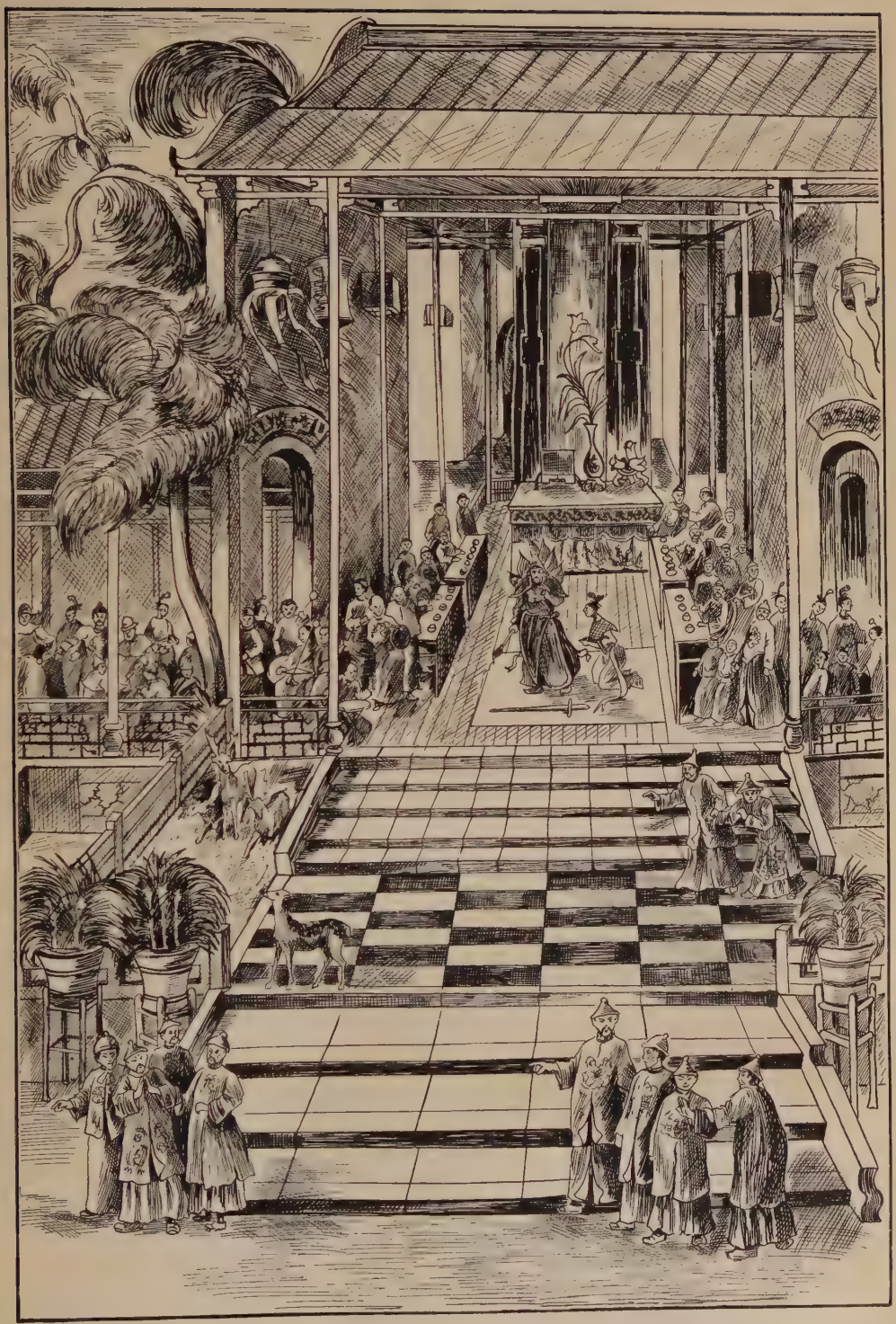
AT THE HEIGHT OF EMPIRE

(Tai-tsing Sets Out on the Campaign Which Extended China to its Widest)

Redrawn from an ancient Chinese print

THE Chinese Empire was probably at the widest extent it ever attained, during the seventh and eighth centuries. The vigorous emperor Tai-tsing extended his power beyond the deserts of central Asia, which had barred the advance of earlier generations. His troops defeated the wandering Tartar tribes of Siberia, and he even established his suzerainty over the khans of Turkestan, thus extending the power of his sceptre across the whole breadth of Asia from the Pacific westward to the shore of the Caspian Sea. Ambassadors sought his capital from Persia and from India. Even distant Rome began to learn vaguely of this mighty empire, and ambassadors from her court followed the Christian missionaries in journeying to the distant land. Its capital was at this time Ho-nan, a city still existing on the banks of the mighty Hoang-ho, in the very heart of central China. There Tai-tsing held his gorgeous court surrounded by philosophers and men of learning. He founded colleges and selected his officials from among their graduates, thus making education the road to honor and to worldly success.

Women were also honored in Tai-tsing's court. Such was their power that after that monarch's death the real sovereignty was snatched from his heir by the latter's wife. Ruling at first in her husband's name and afterward in her own, this vigorous queen, Woo-how, brought the empire to its highest point of military efficiency.



VIII-7

half century of anarchy followed, during which thirteen emperors, representing five families, tried their hands at ruling, and each went down like a blazing torch into the midnight sea. During those tempestuous years, printing was practised in China, five hundred years before it was known in Europe.

Encouraged by the troublous times, the Northern Tartars again invaded China. One of their leaders helped a usurper to mount the throne and was rewarded with a large grant of land in the province of Chi-li, by which means the Tartars gained a footing in North China. Following the wars came a period of repose, when the Sung dynasty rose to power. This consisted of eighteen emperors, the first of whom, Tai-tsu, was proclaimed in 960 and proved one of the best rulers China ever had. The country made great advances under him and several of his successors. But there was no getting rid of the Tartars, who demanded and were paid tribute, and continued encroaching upon the empire. During the Sung dynasty the famous porcelain furnaces were established at King-ti-chin, a village in the province of Kiang si, and the industry still gives employment to thousands of persons.

The empire steadily declined under the hammering of the Tartars. Vice, effeminacy, and cowardice permeated the government and people to the core. When the whole country was threatened with conquest, the Chinese appealed to the Mongols, or Western Tartars, who had proved their prowess by conquering India. Those terrible fighters eagerly accepted the invitation and again demonstrated their might by expelling the Tartars and conquering the Chinese, who were slain by the hundred thousands.

There was born on the 25th of January, 1155, at Deylan-Yeldak, near the northern bend of the Hoang-ho, a son to a Mongol chief, who ruled over some forty clans or tribes, dwelling to the north of the Great Wall of China. The son was originally called Temujin, but he figures in history as Jengueiz, Tchinggis, or Zingis, or more commonly Genghis Khan. His father died when the boy was only thirteen, and the youth unhesitatingly assumed the reins of government. He was defeated, however, in attempting to put down a number of uprisings, and was compelled to take refuge in the dominions of a neighboring monarch, who granted him protection, gave him his daughter in marriage, and the command of his army.

Genghis developed so much military ability that his father-in-law became jealous and ordered his assassination. The young man was warned and fled to his own country with 5,000 cavalry. He gathered a large army, came back, and defeated his father-in-law, who was killed (1203), while fleeing. His dominions were seized by Genghis. A formidable coalition of tribes was formed against the usurper, but he defeated them, slew their chief, and thus became master of nearly all Mongolia. Having tasted the intoxication of con-

THE COMING OF THE MONGOLS

(Genghis Khan Fights His Way to Leadership of the Mongols)

From the series of pictures of China by T. Allom

GRADUALLY civilization seems to have sapped the military vigor of the Chinese race; and they were at length conquered by some of the very tribes over which Tai-tsing and his successors had so easily established their rule. During the twelfth century a tribe of Tartars known as the Kins began to conquer much of northern China, and the Chinese appealed for help to another race of their former subjects. These were the Mongols, fierce fighters from the central deserts of Asia, who swarmed eagerly into China under their great leader, known to us by his title of Genghis Khan or king of kings.

Genghis had won his way to the chieftainship of his people by hard fighting. He was the son of a chief, driven to flee from a rebellious tribe. He gained the favor of a neighboring chief, married his daughter and commanded his army. So successful was Genghis that his father-in-law feared him and plotted to slay him. The young exile was warned of his danger by a messenger just in time to slay the men who would have attacked him. Then he led the army of his ungrateful father-in-law away to follow him in a career of conquest. Having finally risen to be supreme among the Mongols, Genghis led them into China in the year 1211, entering through the gates of the Great Wall as a friend. He defeated the Kin Tartars and then continued his warfare against the Chinese themselves. Before his death he had conquered most of the empire.

VIII-8

terror. As the dreaded enemy drew nearer, one of the grandees, catching up the infant emperor in his arms, leaped overboard. The empress and the chief ministers followed, and all went to the bottom. Certainly there could have been no more summary extinguishment of a dynasty.

Thus it came about that Kublai Khan assumed undisputed control of the whole Chinese empire, though the conquest was accompanied by tremendous sacrifice of life. What sort of a ruler did this terrible man make? One of the best that the distracted empire has ever had through her thousands of years of stormy existence. Having conquered the people, he now set himself to win their confidence and good-will, and he succeeded. He conferred every possible benefit upon them. He was wise, far-seeing, and inspired by the loftiest motives that can actuate the head of any people. His subjects soon saw that he was not only a magnificent warrior, but one of the ablest and most virtuous statesmen that had ever swayed the destinies of any people. He did not disturb the political institutions of the Chinese, nor interfere with any of the ancient customs to which they were so passionately attached. What particularly pleased the conquered ones was that he exempted them from all military service. True, this weakened them and strengthened the Mongols, but after all it was better that it should be so, since the foreigners were more capable of ruling them than they were of ruling themselves, and the new masters did not abuse their power. The strange result was that, although the Emperor was of another race, he was affectionately called the father of his people, and never did he do a thing to taint that noble reputation.

The Chinese were taxed to the extent of a tenth of all their silk, rice, wool, hemp, and other produce, except sugar and spices, upon which the duty was trifling. The mechanics paid their tribute by working one day in nine for the government. The new Emperor assumed the name of Shi-tsu. He made Peking the seat of government, and the city even then was rich and populous, with hundreds of shops in which were displayed the splendid merchandise of Persia and Arabia. Trade was renewed with those countries, from which long caravans arrived every year. In the suburbs were a large number of hotels and houses erected expressly for the accommodation of these foreign visitors. Hitherto the only kind of money used in the Empire was the small copper coinage, but now a form of bank-note was put in circulation. This was made from the inner bark of the mulberry tree, stamped with the mark of Kublai Khan, and counterfeiting it was punishable with death. The paper money proved a great convenience to all classes.

One of the serious defects of the country was the lack of communication or good roads. The Emperor met this by turning the waters of a number of lakes into artificial channels, which were connected with the rivers. Thus the

Great Canal came into existence, though its vast extent carried its completion into the reign of the successor of Kublai Khan. In its construction 170,000 men were employed for many years. It is some seven hundred miles in length and of it the earliest European traveller in China said: "This magnificent work is deserving of all admiration; and not so much from the manner in which it is conducted through the country or its vast extent, as from its great utility, and the benefit it produces to those innumerable cities which lie in its course. No man may count the number of bridges by which it is crossed."

It was during the reign of Kublai Khan that China, or "Cathay," was first visited by other Europeans than missionaries; and the explorers amazed the western world by the accounts of what they saw in that mysterious and interesting land. While Matteo and Nicolo Polo, merchants of Venice, were on a journey in Persia, they heard such extravagant stories of the splendors of the imperial court of China and of the greatness and wise statesmanship of its emperor, that they were eager to see the wonderful country and to meet the illustrious ruler. About that time a Persian ambassador was sent with despatches to Kublai Khan and the brothers were delighted to accept the invitation to accompany him on his long journey.

The Emperor gave them cordial welcome and formed a strong attachment for his visitors, for he was as anxious to learn about the outside world as they were to become acquainted with his empire. They remained a long time, and when they returned years later, one of the Polos brought with him his son Marco, who is the most famous of the three, for he remained seventeen years in the country and on his return to Italy wrote a full account of the "kingdom of Cathay" or the Chinese empire. No one could have enjoyed a better opportunity, for, in addition to his natural intelligence and long residence, he enjoyed from the first the fullest confidence of the emperor. The stories told by Marco Polo were so astonishing that to the majority of his countrymen they were too incredible for belief. Like those of Herodotus, Mungo Park, Du Chaillu, and scores of other travellers, his reports were ridiculed until subsequent investigation proved them in the main correct.

Kublai Khan was succeeded by his grandson Timur, who came to the throne when the Mongol empire was at the height of its splendor. Its magnitude surpassed that of any monarchy of ancient or modern times. It stretched from the northern confines of Siberia to the Indies, and from the eastern shores of Asia to the borders of Poland in Europe. This vast region was governed by princes of the house of Genghis and all were vassals of the Great Khan or Emperor of China. The chief of these, the khans of Persia, of Zagatai and Kipzac, gained their independence after the death of Kublai Khan. None of

his successors approached him in ability, though some displayed wisdom and statesmanship, and the Chinese empire remained under the rule of the Mongols for about seventy-three years.

The ninth and last sovereign of the Mongols was Shun-tsung, or Chunti, who became Emperor in 1333 and reigned for thirty-five years. From the death of Kublai Khan, the dry rot began eating into the vitals of the empire, until it now crumbled to fragments. The debilitating climate, the luxurious living, and the indolence and vice that permeated the court, wrought their deadly work. Shun-tsung was Emperor only in name; he left all his public duties to his ministers and gave himself up to unbridled indulgence. Great was the descent from Kublai Khan to Shun-tsung.

The people were discontented and the whole country simmered with insurrection. At first, the revolts were put down with little trouble, but they increased in number and strength, and then the crisis came. Hong-wou was the son of a laborer of Nanking, so delicate of constitution that his father placed him in a monastery to become a priest. The boy grew strong, ran away, and enlisted in the imperial army. He displayed rare courage and ability, and rapidly rose to high rank. Then he married a rich and influential widow who urged him to take part in the general movement against the government. He did so and threw all his energies into the revolution. His success was astounding. City after city toppled over, thousands rallied to his support, and finally Peking itself was captured. Then Hong-wou was proclaimed Emperor by the title of Tai-tsu in the year 1368. Thus terminated the Yuen or Mongol dynasty and thus began that of the Ming or native dynasty.

KUBLAI KHAN'S ELEPHANT CAR *(From an old print)*

CORONATION PROCESSION OF KUBLAI KHAN

Chapter CXLI

THE LAST DYNASTY OF CHINESE EMPERORS

TAI-TSU governed his country well, being greatly aided by his sagacious wife, who belonged to an influential family. Corea and other tributary provinces sent ambassadors to the Emperor with their congratulations upon the restoration of the throne to a native of China, and the new régime started out with promising prospects. The Emperor made Nanking the capital, while Peking was formed into a principality and bestowed upon his son Yung-lo. A wise and radical step was that of bringing back the system of government as nearly as possible to that of Kublai Khan.

The grief of Tai-tsu's life was the loss of his favorite son, because of which, at the end of his reign of thirty-one years, he appointed his grandson, only thirteen years old, to succeed him. This passed over the elder son, Yung-lo, who was at the head of the principality of Peking. In his rage over what his father had done, he raised a formidable force, with which he marched against Nanking, resolved to compel his nephew to surrender the throne to him. The great battle which followed was indecisive, but a traitor within the city opened the gates to Yung-lo, who put hundreds to death, among his victims being his nephew. After this massacre Yung-lo perched himself upon the throne.

Having attained the object of his ambition, the new Emperor displayed moderation and justice. He removed the capital to Peking, which was a wise step, because of its favorable location for repelling the attacks of the Tartars, which were incessant for a long time after the fall of the Mongol dynasty.

One of the most famous of the Tartar chieftains was Timur or Tamerlane, whose conquering career almost rivalled that of the great Genghis Khan. He could not rest satisfied till China was added to his dominions and he set out to secure the prize. Probably he would have succeeded, had he not been overtaken by a fate strikingly similar to that of Genghis Khan, for he died on the road. This was in 1405, and his army being left without his guidance, the expedition was abandoned and the threatened eclipse of the new dynasty passed harmlessly by. But the Tartars continued their attacks throughout the three centuries which the Ming dynasty lasted.

This dynasty saw one of the most momentous events in the history of the world: that was the discovery of America by Christopher Columbus. This was followed by the opening of new routes to navigation and the visit of the first European ships to the ports of China. Portugal was then a leading maritime nation and she promised to keep her hands off America, provided the other Powers did not interfere with her in the East. After making several voyages to India by the newly discovered route around the Cape of Good Hope, her ships ventured to the mouth of the Canton River. This was in 1516, and they were the first Europeans to penetrate that far into the East. They did not pass above the island at the mouth of the river, and returned to Malacca, whence they came, with a favorable report of what they had seen. The following year a squadron of eight vessels sailed past the islands and up the stream. The Chinese were suspicious and alarmed, and only with the greatest difficulty did the captain obtain permission to visit Canton with two of his ships. Some of the squadron secured cargoes with which they returned to Malacca, while others sailed for the east coast of China, where a colony was established at Ningpo, which became a permanent settlement.

The Portuguese lost their splendid opening through their own behavior toward the Chinese. This became so brutal that the provincial government drove out the whole brood from Ningpo, and refused to receive the other embassies which Portugal persisted for a number of years in sending thither. There was no change until about the middle of the sixteenth century, when the Portuguese managed to establish a settlement at Macao, near the mouth of the Canton River. This weak colony was the only European one in the empire for nearly three hundred years. The settlement was at the extremity of a small peninsula near the mouth of the river and it gained its foothold by bribery and insidious means. The Chinese built a wall across the narrow strip of land, and strictly forbade the inhabitants to leave the bounds of the settlement. The Emperor appointed an officer to see that this order was never violated, and that the white men perforce conducted themselves as orderly citizens of the empire.

By this time the Spaniards saw the magnificent opportunity for trade in the

Far East and began sending their ships into the Indian Ocean. They seized the Philippines, settled Manila, and in the year 1570, two of their monks were sent to China to labor for the conversion of its people.

Never was such a sensation created in the "Middle Kingdom" as was caused by the arrival of these men in their peculiar monkish garb. The people stared at them, as if they had descended from the sky, and hundreds swarmed about the house in which they lodged. The walls and adjoining roofs were thronged, and when the visitors were carried through the streets in sedan chairs it was impossible at times for the bearers to make any headway. While nothing in the nature of violence or insult was offered the monks, they could not fail to see that despite this curiosity their presence was anything but welcome.

By and by they were kindly but firmly informed that the time had come for them to terminate their visit, and that there might be no slip in the matter, they were escorted to Canton, where a vessel was waiting to carry them back to Manila. Thus ended that particular attempt to introduce Christianity among the Chinese.

A century later, the Jesuits, Dominicans, and Franciscans undertook several missions to China. These men were worldly wise and showed a commendable appreciation of the true conditions confronting them in that country. They began their work slowly and guardedly, taking pains not to offend the prejudices of those who were wedded to their ancient forms and traditions. They gave the Chinese to understand that they were drawn to their land by the glowing accounts they had heard of it, and with the permission of the good people they hoped to end their days there. These visitors were men of learning and were therefore able to appeal to the weak side of the Chinese, who were deeply impressed by a sun dial which one of the monks constructed. Surely no one but an extraordinary astrologer could do a thing like that. By adopting this conciliatory course, the monks won the good-will of the Chinese, who after a time permitted them to build a church, into whose fold a large number of converts were gathered.

In 1571, Wau-lieh, the thirteenth emperor of the Ming dynasty, came to the throne of China, which was extremely fortunate once more in obtaining a wise and just ruler. To him is due the origin of the famous Red Book, still published, which contains the name, rank, and native city of every official of the empire. There are nine ranks of these, and since changes are continually made, it can be understood that the publication is valuable and convenient. Its distinctive name is derived from its color, which is the favorite in ceremonial matters relating to religion and state.

The Manchus or Tartars of the north had by this time become once more

THE FALL OF THE MONGOLS

(The Mongol Warriors Ridicule the Chinese Forces of Hong Wou)

After a drawing by the Russian artist, N. Pranishnikoff

THE Chinese seem to have accepted and even welcomed the rule of the earlier Mongol emperors, who saved them from constant warfare, and governed them as did Kublai Khan, with wisdom and justice. After a time, however, the Mongols quarreled among themselves. Weak rulers failed to hold their warlike followers together; and once more the land was desolated by war. Finally a native Chinese laborer led his countrymen in a desperate rebellion. He seized the throne, and styled himself the Emperor Hong Wou. His armies recaptured province after province of China and then ventured forth into the Mongolian wastes to attack their former masters in their own home. The wild Mongol riders met them with laughter and insult, having been so long accustomed to trample on these unwarlike Chinese. But the latter were now roused to a determined stand, and under Hong Wou's leadership they completely defeated the Mongols.

Hong Wou had been a native of Nanking in central China. He established that city as his capital and retained it as such even after he finally captured the Mongol capital of Peking. Thus Nanking became the home of his court and his dynasty. The emperors of his race were known as the Ming or "bright" dynasty, and were the last truly Chinese emperors to bear rule over the land.

VIII-10

a menace to the empire, and the reign of Wau-lieh, which was a long one, was made stormy through the persistent irruptions of those turbulent people. Finally, one of their princes, Tien-ming, was so exasperated by the cruelty of the Chinese officials on the frontiers, that he published a manifesto, reciting his grievances, and then officially declared war against the Chinese empire.

Hardly had hostilities commenced, when Wau-lieh died, and his grandson came to the throne, which he held only seven years. Throughout this period the fighting continued, with varying success, and no decisive result for either side. Nevertheless, the Ming power was steadily declining, and that of the Manchus as surely growing. By a curious coincidence the Tartar king and the Chinese emperor died within a few weeks of each other. The new Tartar ruler was Tien-tsung, and the new emperor Hwai-tsung, who ascended the throne in 1628.

Woful days now came to the Middle Kingdom. All the regular troops were needed to beat back the Tartar hordes, and the discontented, lawless, and vicious seized the chance to set rebellions on foot in the different provinces. These increased in number and virulence until the whole country was rent by anarchy, and crime and bloodshed were everywhere. The recent atrocities of the Boxers prove to what lengths the Chinaman will go when his evil nature is stirred, and the imagination can picture no scenes more horrible than those enacted throughout the length and breadth of the empire. It is impossible to conceive of a worse condition of affairs.

One of the ablest and boldest of the rebel leaders was Li-kung, who gathered so vast a host under his command that he had little trouble in making himself master of the Ho-nan and Shen-si provinces, where he became immensely popular through his stopping all taxes and putting to death the leading officers of the cities.

Finally his troops surrounded the imperial capital of Peking. For several days stray merchants kept dropping into Peking where they hired shops and seemed to care for nothing except to gain custom, and ply their trade. Now and then, when the opportunity was favorable, they made friends with different soldiers of the guard, and whispered that it would be a good thing for them to open the gates to the insurgent troops outside. These pretended merchants were agents of Li-kung, who had given them this specific work to do.

And the spies did it well. On a certain dark night, the guards who had been won over were in charge of the gates. The rebel chieftain and his men were on the alert, and when the ponderous gates swung open they poured eagerly through. Roused from sleep by the tumult, the inhabitants saw the streets filled with furious forms, that were killing without mercy. When the palace was attacked, the officers dashed off in a panic and the dismayed

Emperor, seeing that all was lost, stabbed his daughter and then killed himself. The Empress and many ladies of the court imitated the fearful example, but the daughter recovered from her wound and afterward married a Chinaman of high rank.

Li-kung was a ferocious wretch, who never felt a throb of pity, and his crimes were so frightful that many of his followers hated him, though fear prevented them from putting their feelings into action. He caused himself to be proclaimed Emperor, took possession of the palace, received the submission of the northern provinces, and then led an army to the border of Tartary, where Wu San-kwei, one of the loyal generals, held out with a strong force. It seemed impossible to bring this leader to submission, and the enraged Li-kung, who had taken prisoner the aged father of Wu San-kwei, loaded him with chains, and bringing him under the walls of the city, notified the general that if he refused to surrender, the old man would be put to death. A more dastardly act cannot be conceived.

The heart-broken general appeared on the wall and sank on his knees to plead for pity, but the heroic father, rising erect, sternly commanded his son, under no circumstances to acknowledge the base wretch as his sovereign. Hardly had he uttered the Roman-like command, when his head was stricken off before the eyes of his horrified son.

Glad are we to record that this dreadful crime failed to accomplish its purpose. Wu San-kwei had now the most powerful of motives to stir him to vengeance--the murder of his father and the death of his emperor. His army was not strong enough to crush the usurper, and he therefore offered to help the Manchu Tartars in assailing Li-kung, who was sent flying headlong from the capital.

The Tartar prince having at last conquered the throne of China, decided to hold fast to it. The Chinese were so weary of war and disorder that they gave him joyous welcome, and he was tactful and wise enough to retain their goodwill. Hardly, however, had he assumed the dignity, when he fell ill and died, first naming as his successor his son Shun-chi, then only six years old, whose uncle was appointed to act as regent during his minority.

Thus it was that in the year 1644, the present imperial family of the Manchu Tartar race came to the throne of China. But not immediately did the entire empire fall under the rule of the foreigner. The provinces in the north were prompt to make submission, but a number of the southern cities clung to their native princes. The civil war that followed was continued long enough for several princes of the Ming family to be proclaimed emperor in Nanking, where they held their courts. It was during the reign of the last of these that a Dutch embassy visited Nanking.

FLIGHT OF THE MIAU-TSZ

Chapter CXLII

THE RULE OF THE MANCHU TARTARS

THE first emperor of the Manchu or present dynasty was, as just stated, Shun-chi, who was only a child. He had a good disposition and was placed under careful tutelage. It took long and hard fighting to bring the southern provinces into subjection, but it was accomplished at last, and all China came under the rule of the Manchus. The regent dying in 1652, Shun-chi, although only fourteen, took the government in his hands. He allowed the Chinese to retain all the rights and immunities they had enjoyed under their own rulers, and then, to satisfy his own subjects, he doubled the number of officers of state and members of council, one half of whom were Chinese and the other half Tartars. This rule has been continued ever since.

But the Chinese had to submit to one intense humiliation: that was the Tartar custom of shaving the head, leaving only enough hair to form the long, plaited queue with which we are all familiar. Some preferred death rather than submit to the degradation. A peculiar exception to the execrated law was made in the case of the last province to submit in the south, adjoining Canton on the east. This forbearance was meant as a tribute to the bravery of the people there, who were permitted to retain the black turban to cover the shaved head; and this fashion continues among them to the present day

Let us trace now the coming of the Europeans. We have seen that the

Portuguese had long been settled in a trading station at Macao. In 1637, an English squadron arrived in the Canton River off Macao. Exciting times followed. The Portuguese and Jesuits intrigued against the visitors, and the Chinese scowled upon them from the first. Finally, the Portuguese persuaded the Celestials to fire on the English ships in the hope of driving them away. This naturally roused the ire of the English captain, who opened on the fort with his guns, compelled it to surrender, burned a number of public buildings, killed scores, and captured a good many trading junks. Perforce the Chinese opened trade with the English, but the unfortunate manner in which it began greatly retarded its development.

Alexis, father of Peter the Great and Emperor of Russia, sent an embassy to China in 1655, with a view of establishing a commercial treaty between the two countries. It was the law of the Tartar sovereigns that all visitors should, upon coming into the presence of the Emperor, perform the ceremony that is known as the "ko-tau" and which consists of nine prostrations. The humiliating obeisance was a confession of vassalage, and when it was demanded of the Russian ambassador, naturally he refused, and the embassy therefore came to naught. A more serious cause of friction arose from the fact that the Russians had taken possession of a portion of Siberia, which was claimed as belonging to Chinese Tartary. On the refusal to give it up, China made war against Russia, but was defeated, and in the end the dominions of the two emperors joined each other.

It is a striking proof of the tactful, worldly wisdom of the Romanists that Shun-chi placed himself under the tutelage of a German Jesuit, Adam Schaal, who became chief minister of state and the power behind the throne. Incredible as it may seem, China for a period was actually ruled by a Christian missionary, who, however, never succeeded in making a convert of the Emperor himself. Still Shun-chi made no objection to others joining the new faith, and allowed a couple of churches to be built in Peking, where several missionaries came to live and labor.

Shun-chi died when only twenty-four years old and was succeeded by his son Kang-hi, a boy of eight. Four aged ministers, wedded to ancient tradition, were appointed to conduct the government. They devoted their energies to undoing the beneficent reforms of the late sovereign; they destroyed the two Christian churches; shut Adam Schaal and another German Jesuit named Verbiest in prison; persecuted, fined, and in some instances put native Christians to death. The two Jesuits were released after a time, but the persecutions of the converts continued until the young Emperor was old enough to take the government into his own hands.

Kang-hi ranks among the greatest of China's rulers. Immediately on

EUROPE ENTERS CHINA

(The Portuguese Allowed to Trade in Their Walled-off Settlement at Macao)

From the historical series by T. Allom

IT was during the rule of the Mings that the real discovery and occupation of China by the European nations began. A few early travelers had penetrated the far east by land; but the journey required many months of costly and dangerous travel, and could not be made profitable either for trade or conquest. So the land remained almost unknown. Now, however, European explorers found their way thither by sea. Portuguese mariners sailed around Africa and reached India and then Indo-China. In the year 1517 the first Portuguese ships reached China. Their commander, Perez, was well received at Canton and began a most promising friendship with the governors and other officials of southern China.

Unfortunately later Portuguese traders tried to overawe and subjugate the Chinese with their cannon. Such an attack had been successful in India. It failed wholly in China. The assailants were repelled, the Portuguese envoy who had been sent to the Emperor's court was imprisoned and executed; and for a few years the Europeans were barred out of China entirely. But the advantages of trade with them had been so great that finally they were permitted to establish a settlement of their own at the port of Macao, near Canton. Thither the Chinese went to trade with them, while a wall built across the edge of the settlement shut the Portuguese off from entering the native city. They were regarded as useful but treacherous barbarians.

VIII-11

assuming power he checked the Christian persecutions, and, Schaal having died, Verbiest was raised to his rank of prime minister. In 1692, Kang-hi issued a decree that permitted the free exercise of the Christian religion, which, so far as privileges and immunities were concerned, was placed on the same footing as Buddhism.

At this time the pirates of Formosa became a veritable scourge to the whole southeastern coast of China. Being powerless on the sea, the government issued an order that all its subjects living near the shore should withdraw ten miles into the interior, so that only a barren waste would be left to the invaders. The Portuguese settlers at Macao were exempted from the order, probably because the government was indifferent as to what became of them. This novel remedy was successful, since there was nothing left for the free-booters to plunder, and their disappointed chief surrendered the island for a title and life pension. Thus Formosa became one of the most valuable adjuncts of the Chinese empire, for it is very fertile and has long been known as the granary of the Chinese maritime provinces.

One powerful cause of Kang-hi's popularity among his subjects was his amazing skill as a hunter, an accomplishment which, next to war, ranks foremost with the Tartars. He won the hearts of the Chinese by honoring literary merit, and by personally looking after the welfare of his subjects, and numerous instances are recorded illustrating this fine trait of his character.

The Jesuit Verbiest rewarded the Emperor for the marked favors shown him, for he taught the Chinese the art of making cannon, more than four hundred of which were cast under the Jesuit's supervision, to the unfeigned delight of the Emperor, who gave a splendid banquet and entertainment when the pieces were tested.

The Chinese presented gunpowder to the world, and a large amount of the product, often of a poor quality, is exploded in the form of firecrackers used in China and the United States. When Mr. John Bell visited Peking in 1721, he was told by the "Emperor's General of Artillery" that the Chinese had used gunpowder in fireworks for more than 2,000 years, as proved by their records, but only lately had they begun to apply it to the purposes of war. The interesting fact about such use of the explosive was that it was not employed to hurl missiles at an enemy, but to sputter, smoke, and make a great noise, with which to terrify the foe. The Chinese relied greatly upon the fear they could thus inspire, and employed also the terrific din produced by beating upon gongs and every infernal contrivance that could be invented for creating a deafening racket.

Another peculiar and more effective weapon, used in quite modern times, were pots which, being flung upon the deck of a vessel, broke apart and released

a compound of such horrible odor that it overpowered the strongest men, who, to escape asphyxiation, were often compelled to flee before the intolerable fumes.

Another public service rendered by Verbiest was the correction of the calendar which had gotten so much askew that it was found necessary to drop out a whole month to straighten matters. Kang-hi punished the president of the Astronomical Bureau by banishing him to Tartary for his neglect or ignorance, and Verbiest was made his successor. Never before or since did Christianity make so much progress in the empire as during the reign of Kang-hi. A church was built near the palace for the accommodation of those of high rank who embraced the new faith, while other churches were erected in Peking and different parts of the empire.

A beneficent service rendered by Kang-hi was the preparation, under his supervision, of two great dictionaries of the Chinese language. The more important of these was intended for the learned, and seventy-six profound scholars of the empire were employed continuously upon it for eight years. The other was for more general use and was less comprehensive. The production, however, which brought the Emperor nearest to the hearts of the people was his "Shing-yu," or "Sacred Edict," also referred to as the "Sacred Instructions." It is a collection of sixteen discourses upon practical subjects, written in simple language, so that all can understand. To illustrate, he thus speaks of agriculture:

"Give the chief place to husbandry and the culture of the mulberry tree, in order to procure adequate supplies of food and raiment. Of old time the Emperors themselves ploughed, and their Empresses cultivated the mulberry tree; though supremely honorable, they disdained not to labor; and they did this, in order to excite by their example the millions of the people. Suffer not a barren spot to remain a wilderness, or a lazy person to abide in the cities. Then the farmer will not lay aside his plough and his hoe, or the housewife put away her silkworms and her weaving. Even the productions of the mountains and the marshes, and the propagation of the breed of poultry, swine, and dogs will all be regularly cherished, in order that food may be supplied in their season to make up for any deficiency of agriculture."

Unto Kang-hi was granted an honor which rarely comes to a ruler, the singular and most notable example of modern times being that of Queen Victoria. In the year of 1721 he celebrated the sixtieth anniversary of his accession to the throne, he being the first sovereign of China to attain that remarkable distinction. Sixty is a number held in special veneration in the Chinese empire. The sixtieth birthday of a man is the greatest he can ever have. Some idea, therefore, may be formed of the general rejoicing when so loved

and respected an Emperor rounded out his three-score years of rule. One grand jubilee swept over the country, marked by unusual sacrifices to the gods, feastings, illuminations, fireworks, and an endless variety of amusements. The Emperor died the following year.

In the light of events which have since taken place, one act of his reign becomes specially important. Kang-hi compelled the Mongols to remove three hundred miles back and beyond the Great Wall, where they received fertile lands and pastures. Into the territory thus vacated, the Emperor settled his own subjects of the Manchu race. He thus secured not only a considerable addition to his dominions, but placed a living wall beyond the brick and stone one. There is intense jealousy and hatred between the Mongols and the Manchus, for the former can never forgive the latter for wresting from them the mighty empire once so gloriously ruled by the Mongol princes.

The long period of Kang-hi's reign inevitably embraced a number of important occurrences, to which we must refer before taking up our account of his successor. As far back as 1664, an English ship was sent to Macao, but the malicious intriguing of the Portuguese and the intolerable exactions of the Chinese forced the captain to return without selling anything or obtaining a cargo. Four years later, other ships were sent out, and they picked up a little trade at Formosa which at that time was independent of the Manchus. In 1681, the great East India Company ordered their establishments at Formosa and Amoy to be closed, and every effort made to establish a trade at Canton. The Manchu Tartars, however, were ill-inclined and seemed to suspect the English would incite the Chinese to rebellion. A collision took place shortly after between the crew of an English ship and a large party of natives, who killed several of the foreigners. The authorities compelled the ship to leave and would not permit its return.

By this time the new article of tea had become so popular in England that the East India Company renewed its attempts to organize a trade. Finally, in 1699, it was permitted to have a factory at Canton. Many obstacles were thrown in the way, but thenceforward the English commerce with China steadily grew. It was a long time before the Dutch were equally successful.

Yung-ching, fourth son of Kang-hi, was nominated by the latter before his death, and in 1722, amid great pomp and splendor, was proclaimed emperor. When compared with his illustrious parent, he was little more than a nonentity. The most notable feature of his reign was his bitter persecution of the Roman Catholics, because of their political intrigues. He banished the Jesuits from his court, destroyed their churches, and ordered all the missionaries to leave the country. Among the exiles to the wilds of Tartary were some of

THE DUTCH VISIT NANKING

(Their Envoys Travel Through the Strange Interior of China)

From the historical series by T. Allom

OTHER European nations soon followed the Portuguese into China, in the hopes of sharing or perhaps monopolizing its profitable trade. In the year 1624 the Dutch prepared a powerful expedition in their islands of the "East Indies" and attacked the Portuguese at Macao. They were driven off, but found another landing place near the Chinese coast by seizing the island of Formosa. From here they sent an embassy to visit the Chinese Emperor at Nanking. By the time the Dutch travelers reached Nanking, the power of the Ming Emperors had fallen; a new dynasty ruled from Peking, and the Dutch journeyed there. Thus bit by bit the strange interior of China was opened to foreign eyes.

At Peking the Dutch were received with courtesy and allowed the honor of presenting gifts as a tribute to the Emperor, but were told that the Emperor feared their ships might be wrecked on the stormy Chinese seas and this would so pain him that he would only let a small party of them visit the land once every eight years.

In the same year that the Dutch won this rather dubious concession a Russian embassy also reached Peking, having traveled through Siberia. Its leader, however, refused to perform the ceremonies of submission to which the Dutch had bowed. Hence the Russians were dismissed with even less success than that achieved by the Dutch.

VIII-13

of trading with Europeans, who were prohibited from dealing with any one else. These Chinese traders fixed the prices of tea, silk, and other commodities, as well as of all goods imported, and regulated the conditions of foreign trade. Naturally their profits were enormous and they became very wealthy. The company was dissolved in 1771, and all Chinese merchants were at liberty to carry on trade with the Europeans. The *hong* merchants, however, were not the ones to let slip such a valuable privilege, and they managed to keep the bulk of the trade in their own hands, by making valuable presents to the magistrates at Canton, who, in return checked all interference with the monopoly. This bribery inevitably led to confusion, extortion, and imposition upon the Europeans. These reached such a pass that, since there was no other remedy, the British government decided to send an embassy to the court of Peking to ask for redress from the Emperor.

This embassy arrived at Canton in June, 1793, and marked the first direct intercourse between the courts of Great Britain and China. Lord Macartney, who had been governor of Madras, was the ambassador, and carried many rich and valuable presents to the Emperor. The visitors were received with the highest honors, the Emperor following the curious Eastern custom of holding his levees at daybreak. At this time the venerable Kien-lung was eighty-three years old. Instead of performing the ko-tau, as was expected, Lord Macartney merely bent one knee in presenting his credentials, and the aged sovereign made no objection. The festivities, banqueting, ceremonies, and journeys lasted several months, and the conclusion of the whole matter was a letter from Emperor Kien-lung to George III., quite friendly in its tone, but declining the request to permit Englishmen to trade at Ningpo, Amoy, and other maritime cities, in addition to Canton, as they were allowed to do before being restricted to that single port. The dishonest viceroy of Canton, however, was removed and his successor peremptorily ordered to put a stop to the oppressive acts complained of. This was no small concession and it greatly improved matters, but unfortunately the improvement lasted only to the abdication of Kien-lung, who, two years later, rounded out his sixty years of rule, and in accordance with his vow withdrew in favor of his youngest son, Kia-king. There had been twenty-one sons, but only four were living.

As may be supposed, the sixtieth anniversary of Kien-lung's accession was celebrated with great rejoicing and every possible honor throughout the empire. One feature of it was an invitation for all the old men who had passed the age of seventy to attend a great feast provided at the expense of the Emperor. This must have cost a tidy sum, but a Chinese official of rank who does not acquire wealth is a rare exception, and it is not to be supposed that the Emperor pinched himself in order to carry out his munificent schemes.

THE MANCHUS INVITED INTO CHINA

(Wu San-kwei, the Imperial General, Entreats Aid From the Manchu Ruler)

From the historical series by T. Allom

THE revolution which so complicated the reception of the earlier European envoys to China, brought to the throne the dynasty whose members ruled until 1912. These were the Manchus, chiefs of the Tartars dwelling in Manchuria. They won possession of the imperial throne of China in 1644, after having fought for it nearly thirty years. These Manchurians had been subjects of the Chinese Emperor, treated by him with such severity that they rebelled. Other rebellions seemingly much more formidable also agitated the empire, especially one headed by a ferocious bandit named Li-kung. His troops, who were just a vast army of robbers, stormed Peking where the Emperor was residing; and the latter was driven to suicide to escape them. Li-kung then tried to make himself emperor; and the chief general of the imperial forces, Wu San-kwei, saw no way to stop him except by going in person to the Manchu court and entreating aid.

The Manchus readily aided Wu San-kwei in defeating and exterminating the brigand army of Li-kung. But when vengeance was thus accomplished, the Manchus refused to leave Peking, and proclaimed as Emperor their boy ruler Shun-chi. There was no direct heir to the former Emperor, and the Manchus brought peace and justice back to the shattered land. Hence their rule was soon acceded to by Wu San-kwei and most of the Chinamen of the north. Adherents of the old dynasty continued in power at Nanking for a while, but were overthrown by the Manchus.

VIII-13

had been. In the end, she made peace with the government, and her followers, left without a leader, soon scattered.

In 1803 an attempt was made to seize the Emperor and compel him to abdicate, but it failed. Ten years later it was repeated, the band invading the palace at Peking, where a desperate fight took place. One of Kia-king's sons saved him by shooting dead two of the assailants as they were rushing upon his father. This prince's name was Tau-kwang, and his parent in gratitude named him as his successor. Fortunately for the empire, Kia-king died in 1821.

Tau-kwang, son of Kia-king, was a fairly good emperor, but when, in 1821, he succeeded his vicious father, he found his inheritance a stormy one. Almost immediately a formidable insurrection broke out among the distant Tartar tribes, in the recently annexed territory, the principal scene of revolt being the city of Kashgar. It required several years of severe fighting to subdue the rebellion, during which the imperial troops were guilty of atrocities worthy of the Boxers of to-day.

The next disturbance was another uprising by the Miau-tsz, who swarmed from their mountains and hills in vast numbers, under the lead of the notorious chief Wang. All the other tribes enlisted under the banner which he displayed and their impetuous daring defeated the imperial troops. They captured several towns, from which the soldiers and mandarins were expelled. No harm was offered the inhabitants, and Wang, in a public proclamation, stated that he was warring against the usurping Tartar government alone.

The terms of this proclamation were faithfully kept. The early months of 1832 saw the insurgents firmly established to the northwest of Canton, where they held a number of walled cities. There is reason for believing that this extensive rebellion was instigated by members of the Triad Society. Imperative orders were sent to Li, the governor of Canton, to suppress the insurrection, and he assembled a force that he thought sufficient for the purpose, but he was decisively defeated. In accordance with the policy of the government, already referred to, Li was degraded and deprived of his office, while the governor of Ho-nau, who met with success in that quarter, was rewarded with the peacock's feather, the highest military prize known among the Tartars.

The war lasted until 1838, and was then brought to an end by the most effective of Chinese weapons—bribery. Imperial commissioners from Peking made profuse promises to the insurgent leaders, and persuaded them to return to their homes and live in quiet; after which it was publicly announced that the rebels had sued for peace and had been compelled to submit to the most humiliating terms. All the same, the Miau-tsz remained as independent as before.

SIR HUGH GOUGH'S PROCLAMATION OF AMITY

Chapter CXLIII

THE OPIUM WAR—CHINA HELPLESS AGAINST EUROPE

WE come now to the period when the European nations, with Great Britain at their head, forced their unwelcome presence upon China. Many elaborate arguments have been advanced to justify this intrusion; but it is impossible to disguise the central fact. China did not desire trade with foreigners; English merchants saw there was money to be made, and England made war to force the Chinese government to admit them.

Moreover, to the disgrace of England it must be told, that the principal article of trade which she thus insisted upon sending into China, was opium; and the efforts of the Chinese Government were directed, nominally at least, to saving its people from the awful curse of this drug.

Opium was introduced into China from India, mainly by English merchants. Its use spread very rapidly, until the governor of the English merchants at Canton himself said, "The engrossing taste of all ranks and degrees in China for opium, a drug whose importation has of late years exceeded the aggregate value of all other English imports combined, deserves particular notice, especially in connection with the revenues of British India, of which it forms an important item. The use of this pernicious narcotic has become as extensive as the increasing demand for it was rapid from the first."

The importation of opium was prohibited from the beginning, and yet it increased at an alarming rate. The Peking government became frightened, for

It looked as if the sodden natives were plunging headlong to destruction. Drastic decrees were issued against all smokers, sellers, and buyers of opium. They were warned that they would be beaten with a hundred blows of the bamboo, would have to stand in the pillory, and would receive other degrading punishments. Yet the very authorities who issued these warnings were themselves smokers of opium.

Great Britain, it will be remembered, had been allowed to establish a trading station at Canton, where the "foreign devils" were securely walled off from the natives. In this settlement tons of opium were stored, and despite all restrictions and prohibitions, the drug was smuggled in vast quantities into the hands of the Chinese.

For the better regulating of this vast, profitable trade, England, in 1834, sent out Lord Napier, one of her leading statesmen, to be governor of the Canton settlement. The Chinese government refused to receive him at all, except as a vassal doing homage to the Emperor. He attempted to force himself upon the Canton officials, and they stopped all trade with the English. Two British ships of war forced their way through the Bague, as the passage at the mouth of the Canton River is called. The intruders were fired on and returned the fire, easily silencing the feeble Chinese forts.

At this juncture Lord Napier fell ill and died. His subordinates hesitated to push matters to extremities, but for some years the ill feeling steadily intensified.

In 1839 a commissioner arrived from the Chinese imperial court with absolute powers to take whatever measures he saw fit to stamp out the opium traffic. There were twenty thousand chests of the drug on the British ships in the harbor. This he ordered to be given up at once, under threat of putting to death the occupants of the factories. The British superintendent, in order to save the lives of the men, surrendered the opium, whose delivery occupied several weeks.

During all this time, soldiers held the English merchants imprisoned. Then when the chests were delivered, on June 3, 1839, the commissioner and his officers proceeded to the mouth of the river, where large trenches had been dug. Into these they dumped the opium mixed with quicklime and salt water, which dissolved the stuff and caused it to flow out to sea. Nothing of the kind has ever elsewhere been witnessed, for the market value of the drug thus destroyed reached the enormous sum of twelve million dollars.

War soon followed. The English seized upon the island of Hong-kong as a base of operations, and sent hurriedly to India for reinforcements. Before these could arrive, the Chinese admiral sailed through the Bogue Passage, and attacked a number of British mercantile ships, lying below the mouth of the

A DISASTROUS INVASION

(The Emperor Kien-lung Sends a Vast Army to Death in Burmah)

After a sketch by Mme. Paule Crampel

KIEN-LUNG, a grandson of the great Kang-hi, ruled like his illustrious grandfather for sixty years (1735-1795). He was both a man of action and a poet. Numerous poems of his have been preserved, and he devoted his literary talent to the celebration of his own military triumphs. Thus we find a song of his victory in the Himalayas by which he extended his power to the border of the newly founded English Empire of India. He also celebrated in this fashion his reëstablishment of China's authority over Thibet and Turkestan.

There were, however, two military undertakings of his which he failed to commemorate in song. One of these was a disastrous attack upon the island of Formosa, where he is said to have lost a hundred thousand men. The other, the greatest recorded disaster of Chinese arms, was his invasion of Burmah, the land to the south of China. An army over a hundred thousand strong marched over the mountains into Burmah, descending into a tropic marsh land, to the heat of which the Manchus were totally unaccustomed. Fever seized them; the foe attacked them; and we are told that not one man of the doomed army ever returned to China. A later campaign, however, made Burmah a tributary of the Chinese Empire.

VIII-16

with considerable steadiness and fair aim opened fire on the British as they advanced, but gave no heed to two flanking columns, which speedily attacked and threw the natives into confusion. The Chinese had not been in the habit of granting quarter and did not know how to ask for it. They continued their headlong flight, most of them running toward the water with the soldiery in pursuit. Hundreds were bayoneted or shot, and many more drowned. Sir Hugh Gough, the English commander, sent out a flag with an inscription in large letters saying that the lives of all who yielded would be spared, but only a few threw down their arms. The loss of life was enormous.

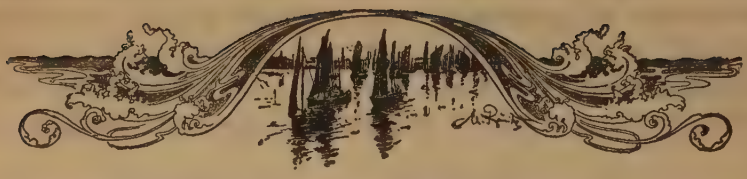
The town and its defences on the north side of the river were bombarded by the ships, and the defenders driven out pell mell. The Chinese commander on seeing that all was lost committed suicide.

The great and rich city of Ningpo was next assailed, and its capture took place without any resistance whatever. Indeed, the inhabitants tumbled over one another to help the soldiers scale the walls, and when the latter tugged on one side to open the gates, the natives pushed just as enthusiastically on the other side to help them. As the troops poured eagerly through the streets, they saw written on the doors the words "shun min," which being translated meant, "we are people who submit, but do not fight."

War waged in this fashion certainly had no unpleasant features to the conquerors. The booty secured at Ningpo was almost fabulous in extent.

The Chinese Government felt all these misfortunes so keenly that in March, 1842, they made a determined effort to recapture Chin-hai and Ningpo, but in both cases their troops were repulsed with severe loss. Their next attempt to cripple the invaders was by forming a camp ten miles from Ningpo and intercepting the supplies. The encamping force was attacked and scattered with the loss of six hundred killed. Despite the continued defeats, the Emperor refused to listen to proposals for peace.

Early in May, the British forces moved northward from Ningpo, with the intention of taking possession of Nanking as preliminary to the attack on Peking itself. Reaching the sea-coast town of Cha-pu, the chief port of communication between China and Japan, they confronted a body of Tartar troops, who fled without any attempt to keep the invaders out of the city. Some nine hundred Tartars took refuge in a temple and, believing no quarter would be given them, continued to fire upon the troops, killing a number of officers and men. The latter assailed them and massacred nearly all. The Hindoo troops of the British army committed outrages as dreadful as any that have ever been perpetrated by Boxers, so that hundreds of women, seeing their husbands killed, threw their little children into tanks and wells and then destroyed themselves.



EUROPE'S FIRST BLOW AT CHINA

(The English Warships Force Their Way Into the Canton River)

From the historical series by T. Allom

THE trade of the world and especially of the far East, which had been in Portuguese hands in the sixteenth century and had passed later to the Dutch and French, came chiefly under the control of England when the Napoleonic wars made her mistress of the seas. Thus English merchants superseded the earlier Portuguese in the vicinity of Canton, the metropolis of southern China. These Englishmen grew bitterly dissatisfied with their treatment at Chinese hands. In 1816 the English government sent an embassy of protest to the court of the idle Kia-king, but the envoy was not sufficiently submissive and flattering, and Kia-king thereafter encouraged his Canton viceroys to harass the traders still further. When Kia-king died, his son and successor Tau-kwang, continued the same course of debauchery at home and insolence and injustice abroad.

At length in 1834 the English government sent out an armed fleet under Lord Napier, who was to act as governor of the little English colony at Canton and see that it was fairly treated. The Cantonese viceroy refused even to see Lord Napier or permit him to enter the Chinese empire beyond the wall which shut off the foreigners in their little trading spot. Napier responded by forcing the passage of the "Bague" or mouth of the Canton river. The forts there fired on him ineffectively and he sailed up to Canton. Napier himself died of fever shortly after and the expedition achieved no practical result; but it was Europe's first blow in the destruction of ancient China.

VIII-15

that did not flourish there. The natives were pirates when they dared to be, and fishermen only when necessary for their own safety; the depraved white people were worse yet. What a recommendation of Christianity Hong-kong was during those early days! The greatest injury done to true religion has always been by those who professed it; for, while the miscreants at Hong-kong made no personal professions, they belonged to a Christian nation and were placed in the same category with the self-denying missionaries. The Emperor Tau-kwang who had been a strict Confucian, became a fierce idolater, and with morbid superstition declared that all of the empire's calamities were due to the lapse from that so-called religion.

A powerful cause of distress was the crushing load of debt created by the war. Taxation was so oppressive in many cases that the people lost their lands and huts because they could not pay their taxes. Thousands, rendered desperate by their poverty, became robbers and pirates, and the condition of the country became like that of Europe during the Dark Ages, when Heaven for a time seemed to forsake the children of men.

It was inevitable that the privileges secured by Great Britain in China should awaken the jealousy of other nations. Belgium, the Netherlands, Spain, Portugal, and Prussia sent agents to examine the commercial prospects, and to make agreements, if possible, with the Canton authorities, for a share in such favors. Our own country despatched Mr. Caleb Cushing as minister extraordinary to the court of Peking, and he arrived at Macao in February, 1844. There he was notified that he would not be permitted to go to Peking, because the United States had never sent any tribute to the Emperor. Nevertheless, Mr. Cushing succeeded in effecting commercial arrangements with the Chinese commissioners. The treaty of Wang-hai, as it was called, was ratified by the President and Senate, and Hon. A. H. Everett was appointed to China as resident minister.

The distressful condition of the empire continued. The government could not pay its officers, who by their extortions goaded the people to rebellion, and then again, numerous bands of robbers devastated the country, and pirates swarmed along the coasts. So strong indeed were the insurgents that in 1847 the city of Kashgar was captured and the imperial Manchu army routed. The mountain chiefs and their wild warriors plundered and killed with impunity. Nothing shows the lawlessness of these yellow desperadoes more strikingly than their action in robbing an envoy of the Grand Llama of Thibet on his way to the court of Peking, for the despoilers were Buddhists themselves and such a sacrilegious act had never before been known.

It seemed as if sorrows and miseries gathered about the head of the Emperor as his reign drew near its end. Tremendous inundations destroyed thousands

of square miles of crops, and the miserable people died in multitudes from starvation, while those who survived kept body and soul together by gnawing roots and wild herbs. Humiliated and oppressed by calamities and sorrows such as come to few potentates, Tau-kwang's health gave way, and he died in March, 1850, after a tempestuous reign of thirty years.

CHINESE STANDARD BEARER IN THE OPIUM WAR

ADVANCE OF GORDON'S TROOPS AGAINST THE TAIPINGS

Chapter CXLIV

THE TAIPING REBELLION, AND AGGRESSION BY FOREIGN POWERS

TAU-KWANG was succeeded by his son Yih-chu, with the title of Hieng-fung, or "Universal Prosperity," the grimmest piece of sarcasm conceivable, for his reign was a continual procession of wretchedness and misery. It opened with a widespread and terrible famine, which was followed as usual by a devastating pestilence. He tried energetically to save his wretched people, until he gave up the impossible task in despair, and, withdrawing to his seraglio, abandoned himself to every species of vice. Since he could not make his suffering subjects happy, why should he not in his own way be happy himself?

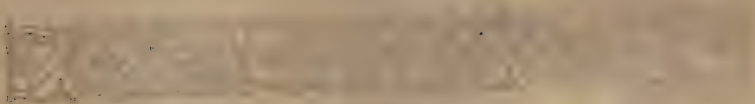
Woful days came upon the land. In the western part, robbers and outlaws plundered at will, and the governmental officers were as corrupt and treasonable as they; but from out the baleful gloom and night strange rumors reached the seacoast of a wonderful movement in the interior under the name of *Christianity*. Its leader, a middle-aged Chinaman, head of the Taipings, had become converted through some tracts given to him by a colporteur in Canton, and, though he saw only dimly the profound religious truths underlying the words, he was moved to preach as he understood them. Converts, friends, and neighbors gathered about him, and, goaded by their oppressors, they started a crusade for the propagation of the new faith. They grew rapidly in numbers and set on foot the Taiping Rebellion, one of the most remarkable outbreaks of

which we have record. Debouching from their rocky fastnesses in the mountains of the extreme south and under their native leader, Hung Sin Chuen, they repeatedly defeated the imperial forces sent against them. The news that came to the outside world, and was wafted across the seas was that this tremendous host were Christians,—fanatics beyond question, but guided by an intense, irrestrainable resolve to do the will of God as they believed it to be. What a startling thought that such a movement should break out in the very heart of this mighty heathen empire!

Hung was as resolute as Oliver Cromwell, and the march of him and his followers recalls that of the Puritans, who upset the throne of England. Each company chanted a hymn as they sat down to meat, and on every seventh day his captains climbed the pulpit and preached fiery sermons to their ardent followers. History has shown that such men are always tremendous fighters. The rush of these people, whose numbers continually increased, carried them to the banks of the Yang-tse-kiang, the river being reached at Han-kow, a city eight hundred and fifty miles from the sea. It was captured without difficulty, and, loading hundreds of junks with their spoils, the fanatics swept down the great river like a resistless inundation, until they reached Nanking, the southern capital. The city held out only a brief time, and then, on the 24th of March, 1853, every man of the 20,000 Manchu garrison was slaughtered! This appalling crime was enough to show the spurious nature of the Christianity professed by these wild men.

Had Hung possessed only a moderate amount of military ability and had there been no foreign interference, he might have overturned the Manchu dynasty and established a professedly Christian one upon the throne of China. But he had no conception of his opportunities. His true course was to push to the sea and open communication with Christendom, which was amazed, hopeful, and yet mystified. Instead of this, Hung remained in the interior. Moreover, he rigidly prohibited all traffic in opium, and that, it need hardly be said, touched professing Christendom in its sorest spot.

Aside from this, the insurgents, as has been shown, were anything but true followers of the meek and lowly One. They massacred without mercy, and Hung claimed to be the younger brother of the Saviour of mankind. His private life was immoral, and his example of the most pernicious character. The principal cause of his downfall was his neglect to take possession of Shanghai, which was captured by a mongrel horde known as Redheads, who belonged to the Triad Society. While they had no sympathy with the reformers, they were classed with them by foreigners, who were vastly relieved when with the help of the French, the Redheads were driven out of the city. With similar aid from the English, the imperialists recaptured Ningpo, which, like most



THE OPIUM WAR BEGINS

(The British Storm the Forts at Canton)

From the historical series by T. Allom

THE chief article of merchandise which the English traders sold at Canton was opium. The Europeans were in fact the first to introduce the vice of opium smoking into China. The leisurely and unambitious Chinese rapidly became complete slaves to the terrible habit, which soon destroys all energy, all sense of honor, and then attacks life itself. The Chinese government forbade the import or sale of opium; but the eagerness for gain among both the English and the Chinese merchants resulted in a vast smuggling trade in the drug.

Finally the dispute reached a point where the Chinese viceroy compelled the English merchants under threat of immediate death to surrender all their stock of opium, several million dollars worth. This vast quantity of the drug was then publicly destroyed. England responded by sending out a powerful war fleet (1840), which sailed beyond Canton to north China where foreign ships were still wholly unknown. The fleet threatened Peking itself, and the startled emperor Tau-kwang, at once ordered his ministers to concede whatever they must, to get rid of the invaders. So the British commander sailed back to Canton well-supplied with promises, but gained nothing more until he began an actual attack upon the Canton forts. Two of these were stormed, the Chinese soldiers resisting heroically and perishing in hundreds, but being utterly unable to match the superior weapons of the English.

VIII-19

of the large cities in the Che-kiang and Kiang-su provinces, had fallen into the hands of the Taipings.

Meanwhile, the famous American adventurer, Frederick G. Ward, of Salem, Mass., had arrived in China and volunteered his services to the taotai of Shanghai, which was threatened by the Taipings. He introduced modern arms and discipline, infused new life into the immense mob which composed the imperial army, and, assisted by other foreigners, moulded it into a well-regulated military machine, which struck blows that told. The insurgents were defeated again and again, and town after town captured, but General Ward was wounded while bravely fighting under the walls of Tseche, and died on the following morning, September 22, 1862. The Chinese erected at Sung-kiang a memorial temple in his honor.

Colonel Gordon, the Christian hero, who died at Khartoum because of England's neglect, was chosen as the successor of Ward. He was a superb officer and raised the force under him to a surprising degree of efficiency. He accomplished wonders, but was often shocked and filled with indignation by the cruelty and treachery of the imperial officers. More than once he saved intended victims only by threats of stern punishment. One of the most atrocious acts of perfidy was committed by Li Hung Chang, the distinguished diplomat, who coolly put to death a number of Taiping leaders who had surrendered under a pledge that their lives would be spared. Nanking was recaptured from the rebels in 1864, after a protracted siege, and was followed by massacres as fearful as those that marked its first capture by Hung, who, with a number of his followers, committed suicide. This ended the rebellion which had lasted for a dozen years.

During its progress, the empire had become involved in further war with Great Britain and her European allies. It was at Canton, where the ill-feeling between the races was always most intense, that a dispute over the arrest of some opium smugglers precipitated the contest.

The arrested men were Chinese, but they had hoisted an English flag over their vessel, and England insisted on their being freed. In the course of angry negotiations, Admiral Seymour insisted on calling on the Canton governor or viceroy; this was against all precedent, and the gates of Canton were locked against him. Seymour promptly blew up the gates. The Canton mob rose in fury against the English and their settlement was burned.

Great Britain appealed to the other Powers to aid her in punishing this interference with trade. Russia and the United States refused, but France joined in the war. Canton was bombarded in December, 1857. That city, the metropolis of southern China, was helpless under the murderous fire of the allies. The wealthiest and most important portion was destroyed, hundreds of

innocent people were killed, and thousands reduced to beggary. The viceroy was made prisoner and taken to Calcutta, where he soon died.

Canton was placed under the control of a British and French garrison, and the allied forces moved to the Pei-ho River, with Peking as their objective point. The fortifications at the mouth were captured after a fire of two hours. Hardly was this effected when commissioners from the Chinese government appeared and drew up a treaty submitting to whatever the allies demanded. The United States and Russia also seized the opportunity to revise their treaties with the empire.

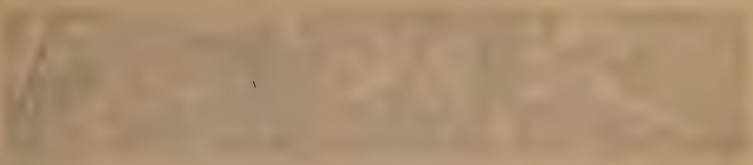
In 1859 the British and French squadrons, accompanied by several Russian and American vessels of war, arrived off the Pei-ho, expecting to sail up to Peking for the ratification of the treaties. The Emperor, however, had resolved not to endure this final humiliation in his own capital. The Chinese had strongly fortified the mouth of the river, and their commissioners insisted that the treaties should be settled there. The allies refused and attempted to force a passage, but were beaten back. The next year they returned in stronger force, demolished the fortifications, fought their way into Peking, and compelled it to surrender, 1860.

We must not forget that through these stormy times, Hien-fung was Emperor. When he saw that the "foreign devils" were certain to swarm into the Celestial capital, he fled to his summer home in Tartary, where, overwhelmed with misfortune and debilitated by dissipation, he died in 1861, only thirty years of age.

The fruits of the treaties were the opening of the new ports of Niu-chang, in the extreme north, Tang-chau, in the northern province of Shan-tung, Tai-wan, in the island of Formosa, Swatau, east of Canton, and Kiang-chu, on the island of Hainan, on the southern coast, west of Canton, to which were afterward added Tientsin, the seaport of Peking. Treaties were subsequently made with Belgium, Italy, and other Powers of Europe.

France succeeded in snatching from the quarrel the beginnings of a colonial empire. Annam, the country south of China, though not actually under the control of the Chinese Emperor, sent him occasional tribute. As far back as 1787, an exiled Annam king had appealed to France for aid, and a couple of French vessels helped him to regain his throne. In gratitude he granted certain privileges to French missionaries, but his successors soon withdrew these concessions. Now in 1858, France, not to be behind her neighbors, reasserted these long dead rights in Annam, and sent a fleet which seized the port of Saigon. Neither Annam nor China could prevent this; and for a time French aggression was satisfied.

Russia also profited by the victories of the allies. The Russians had begun



HONG-KONG CEDED TO ENGLAND

(The Chinese Seek to Placate Their Enemies by Giving Them Territory)

From a drawing by the English artist, W. H. Overend

THAT first decisive encounter with England's arms at Canton caused a complete change in the attitude of the Cantonese viceroy. He saw, if the imperial government at Peking did not, that resistance was useless. The English must be placated, at least until time was gained to prepare a far stronger defense. The viceroy made a treaty, by which he conceded all the English demanded, and granted them as a naval station to be entirely their own, the large island of Hong-kong.

Hong-kong was thus the first territory actually ceded by China to any European power. The Britons took formal possession of their new colony in January, 1841, receiving the island from the hands of its governor and hoisting their own flag above its shores. The Emperor, however, being now at a safe distance from the terrible English ships, repudiated this treaty and summoned the unlucky viceroy to Peking for punishment. As a result the English began a regular assault on Canton, captured all its forts, defeated and dispersed its army, and took possession of the city. The new viceroy was compelled to pay them a ransom of several million dollars to prevent their destroying entirely this ancient metropolis of southern China. Thus England's power was extended over both Hong-kong and Canton.

VIII-20

the settlement of Siberia about the year 1587, but the treaty of 1689 made the dividing line between the Russian territories and those of the Mongols the river Argun and the range of mountains bordering the valley of the Amur on the north. With the purpose of watching her interests in Eastern Asia, Russia had, in 1728, succeeded in establishing a mission in Peking, with the right of renewal every ten years.

After the close of the Crimean War, the Russians proceeded to strengthen their position in the Far East. In May, 1858, Count Nicholas Muravieff, the promoter, if not actually the originator, of the Trans-Siberian railway scheme, obtained for his countrymen the right to navigate the Amur and its tributaries, the Sungari and Usuri. Another Russian opportunity came in 1860, and the cession of the northern shore of the Amur was strongly urged. In November, Count Ignatieff, the Russian ambassador, demanded and obtained the signing of another treaty with China, by which his country secured the cession of the Manchurian seacoast, 600 miles in length, and of the country extending from the Usuri and Amur rivers to the Sea of Japan. Thus, for the first time, Russia secured on the Pacific coast harbors which were not closed by ice for six or eight months each year. Despite the treaty, however, the Chinese government obstinately resisted all efforts of the Russians to navigate the Sungari or to trade with the country through which that river runs.

Let us anticipate the regular order of events by adding that the rapid economical growth of the Amur province, and the necessity for obtaining provision for the laborers engaged in building the northern Usuri section of the Siberian railway, made it necessary for Russia to establish commercial relations with the inhabitants of the Sungari region. Accordingly, in 1895, the Czar's representative at Peking obtained from the Tsung-li-Yamen an order to the governor of the Kerin province instructing him to render all the aid possible to Russian traders. A trading expedition was organized without delay, and it penetrated to the extreme west of Manchuria. Some time later, members of the Imperial Geographical Society visited Manchuria and collected valuable information about the country, especially the Sungari and its tributary, the Nonni. Subsequently, in 1897, under the guise of a "lease," Russia acquired Port Arthur and Talien, thereby securing the right to build railways and to station troops throughout Manchuria, which is a region twice as large as Japan and more than six times the extent of England and Wales.

Meanwhile the occupation of Peking in 1860 and the conclusion of the treaty of Tientsin established the right of foreign Powers to embassies in the Chinese capital. The simultaneous formation of the Tsung-li-Yamen or Chinese foreign office marked the beginning of the empire's direct official intercourse with European nations.

Tung-che, the son of Hieng-fung, was only four years old when, at the death of his father, he was proclaimed Emperor. The first or principal Empress was not his mother, but, having no children of her own, she adopted him as her son in accordance with Chinese law, which imputes to the first or proper wife the children of the secondary wife. This secondary, though favorite wife, Tsi-hssi, was made regent, and Prince Kung, brother of the late Emperor, an able and determined man, had himself proclaimed joint regent with her. And here it is appropriate to give a sketch of this remarkable woman, who, more than any other person of her sex, drew the eyes of the civilized world upon her during the closing years of the nineteenth century.

Many of the stories told of her have not the least basis in truth. She was the daughter of a noble Manchu family, and while young submitted herself with hundreds of others as a candidate for the Emperor's harem. She was one of the few selected. She is described as having been tall, straight, and beautiful, with skin the color of a yellow peach, and hair and eyes of midnight blackness, which sounds very pretty, but her later photographs show an unmistakably ugly woman with a repulsive countenance.

This secondary wife delighted the Emperor by presenting him with a son, who was his first born, and who afterward became the Emperor Tungche. The father raised the mother to the rank of empress; and to distinguish her from his first wife, who bore the title of Eastern Empress, the two had separate palaces in the Forbidden City. As has been stated, the Emperor Hieng-fung died after a short reign. If it should be added that the empress dowager grew tired of her consort and poisoned him, it isn't safe to deny it, for such things you know have happened even among European nations. Be that as it may, this woman became more powerful immediately after the death of her husband, and for more than a generation was the real ruler of China.

Observe the sinuous course she took. At first, the Eastern Empress and Prince Kung were associated with her in the regency, which was to continue until her son became of age. Prince Kung, however, was altogether too independent to suit her, so she resorted to a curious artifice. One day her little son issued an edict—that is to say, it was issued in his name—declaring that Prince Kung had been grossly disrespectful to him and in punishment therefor it was necessary to degrade him. Accordingly, his titles were taken away and he was held a prisoner in one of the palaces. Soon afterward, another edict was published from the baby Emperor to the effect that the weeping Prince Kung had flung himself at the foot of the throne, confessed his offence, and His Majesty had graciously pardoned him. His rank and titles were restored, but he was denied any further part in the regency of the empresses. The subdued Kung was used by the empress dowager as a sort of football, and was

degraded and favored as the whim possessed her. There seemed to have been little or no friction between the two empresses, the younger completely dominating the other.

In 1872, upon her son becoming sixteen years of age, the empress dowager made a pretense of abdicating in his favor, although her powerful personality and grim will made her still the real ruler. The ceremony which formally announced young Tungche's assumption of his imperial authority was his marriage. His mother selected for him a Manchu maiden of rank and learning, Ahluta; and the wedding took place with splendid ceremonies in the fall of 1872.

The young Emperor then took the helm of state, and in the following year in the Purple Pavilion at Peking, he gave to the representatives of foreign Powers the first equal audience they had had with any Chinese emperor.

Dissension between Tungche and his imperious mother soon grew serious. He published an edict degrading her favorite, Prince Kung, and the next day a second edict, published in the Emperor's name, but bearing his mother's signature, restored the Prince to office. After that it was announced that the Emperor was "happily" ill of small-pox, and then that he had died of the dread disease. What really happened within the secret precincts of the palace we will probably never know; but soon after, the Emperor's wife, Ahluta, was also reported dead, and the grim empress dowager had matters once more under her complete control.

Passing over the nearer heirs to the throne, she adopted as her son an infant of the royal race, and declared him emperor as Kwang-su (1875). This unhappy puppet, Kwang-su, remained the nominal ruler of China until 1908, though in truth the resolute empress dowager was, through all those years, the real sovereign

PROCESSION CELEBRATING THE PEACE WITH EUROPE

THE FRENCH STORMING AN ANNAMESE TOWN

Chapter CXLV

THE EMPRESS DOWAGER AND LI HUNG CHANG

IF the empress dowager is the foremost woman of China, no name is better known among its men than that of Li Hung Chang, whom General Grant pronounced to be the ablest of then living diplomats. Emerging from the mysterious shadows that brood over China, this colossal form of Li drew the attention of the civilized world, though it was not until the time of General Grant's memorable tour around the globe that our special interest was aroused in the remarkable man. He was an ardent admirer of General Grant and received him with honors that were unprecedented in that hoary empire. At the memorable banquet given by Li, both hemispheres contributed, after the fashion of those famous epicures of imperial Rome. The guests sat on polished ebony chairs, while for their convenience, knives and forks were added to the spoons and chopsticks. Among the almost endless things that made up that memorable feast it is said were live crabs, silkworm grubs, pickled eggs, dried eggs, sharks' fins, pigeons' eggs, birds' nests, snake soup, fish gills, lotus soup, deer tendons, whale blubber, and so on, with no end of mushrooms, roast ham, chicken, quail, pheasant, turkey, pigeon, snipe, pineapple, pomegranates, citrons, carambolas, nuts, figs, dates, etc. Li was proud of the friendship of our illustrious commander, and took great pride in the fact that they were both born in the same year, were of humble origin, and attained fame by their military successes.

Li Hung Chang first came into prominence as the leader who suppressed the Taiping rebellion, though he hardly would have succeeded, except for the powerful aid of the American adventurer Ward, and the Englishman, "Chinese" Gordon, whose parts in that formidable uprising have already been told. Li's father was a small office-holder, famous for his learning. Li himself also passed three of those tremendous public examinations, that is, he thrice was one of the 200 successful men out of 15,000 competitors, and the last time he led the 200. This phenomenal scholarship made him military secretary to General Tseng Kuo Fan, one of the most distinguished statesmen of the time, and thus began Li's memorable career. In the Taiping rebellion he displayed striking ability, but it was so stained by treachery that the enraged Gordon, on learning of his execution of prisoners who had been promised honorable treatment, drew his revolver and started out with the avowed intention of killing Li on sight; but the wily fellow kept out of his way until the Englishman's anger had time to cool.

For his services, Li Hung Chang was made governor in succession of the provinces of Foo-kien and Kiang-si. In 1867 he suppressed the Shantung rebellion and in 1870 was advanced to the viceroyship of Chi-li, the principal viceroyalty of the empire, since the province lies between the capital and the sea, or between the capital and outside barbarians. Li did good service in 1876, in aiding the sufferers from the great famine, and, in 1880, he became grand secretary of state and the real head of the Chinese empire.

A shrewder, craftier, or more cunning man never lived. He could not, however, save his country from a serious quarrel with France. From occupying the city of Saigon in Annam, France had gradually extended her claims to asserting a protectorate over the entire country. The Annamese had refused to submit to this and there was occasional fighting, until in 1884 Hue, Annam's capital, was attacked by the French, and its King, perforce, acknowledged their authority.

China, remembering her own ancient claim upon Annam, protested. War was not declared, but there was much bloody fighting in Tong-king, Annam's northern province. The Chinese attacked the French desperately at Langson and other places but were everywhere repulsed.

Thus matters stood, when the French admiral Fournier was placed in communication with the Viceroy, Li Hung Chang, who was reluctantly granted permission by the imperial court to discuss terms of peace. France sent a properly accredited agent to Tientsin, and on May 11, 1884, it was announced that that country had engaged to protect the southern frontier of China and to demand no indemnity; while China agreed to withdraw her troops from Tong-king, to respect all future treaties between France and Annam, and to

allow trade along all their conterminous frontiers, agreeably to a tariff to be made afterward.

This treaty was denounced both at Paris and at Peking. It was declared in France that despite the year and a half of hard campaigning, only the pretense of suzerainty remained, while the Chinese were exasperated because their suzerainty over Annam was resigned. Li was pronounced a traitor and numerous memorials were addressed to the throne demanding his impeachment. In short, the new treaty pleased nobody except its framers. It need hardly be added that Great Britain's resentment was stirred by the sight of the southern provinces of China being opened up for the benefit of her hereditary rival.

These negotiations were sadly bungled. Li Hung Chang demanded three months for the withdrawal of the Chinese troops from Tong-king; the French captain insisted upon three weeks. The Chinese declared that this officer erased with his own hand the date to which he and Li had pledged their honor. Some one was lying, but who was it?

June 21 was the date the French insisted upon, on which day, Colonel Dugenne promptly appeared before the fortress of Langson and demanded the withdrawal of the troops. The Chinese general asked for delay until he could receive instructions. Dugenne would not wait, but with his weak force attacked the place and was repelled with the loss of most of his men.

This dishonorable act brought its natural consequences. Peace, which both parties wished, was thrown to the winds, fighting was renewed, and France had to pay dear for her injustice. Her troops suffered severely from the sickly climate, and their enemies found security in the mountains and forests. It was not until February, 1885, that the French were able to occupy Langson, the chief fortress on the northern frontier. Soon after, the Chinese proposed new negotiations, but the French were so angry that they replied with impossible conditions and closed their legation at Peking.

It seems curious that even now, throughout all this bitter fighting no war was declared on either side. Admiral Courbet blockaded the coast of Formosa in August, 1884, sailed past the fortified estuary of the Min, and drew up his nine vessels opposite the Chinese squadron and arsenal just below Foo-chau. His demand for their surrender being refused, he attacked the eleven wooden ships and in about ten minutes every one was destroyed. France gained about as much honor in this affair as if her fleet had assailed so many toy vessels with which a number of children were playing. The arsenal with all its machinery and stores was burned and the forts were stormed and taken from the rear. The fleet then returned to the blockade of Formosa, capturing Ke-lung in October.

THE ENGLISH AT THE HEART OF CHINA

(The Ravaging Fleet Sails Up the Yang-tse-kiang)

From the historical series by T. Allom

DESPITE the capture of Canton, the Emperor Tau-kwang still refused all negotiations with the English. So in the following year (1842) they prepared a powerful expedition for the express purpose of ravaging China until its ruler came to terms. An English fleet sailed up the coast, seizing city after city. The work was a hideous one for even the most hardened military man to perform. The Chinese could make little resistance, they could only die. This they did deliberately, often wading out into the water toward the guns of the English battleships and thus committing suicide by drowning. Mobs of the lowest Chinamen followed behind the invaders, plundering the citizens who were left helpless. When the English troops stormed the populous city of Ning-po, such of the inhabitants as did not commit suicide hung out signs before their houses announcing that they were people who submitted to whatever happened and did not fight.

Finally the English ships reached the Yang-tse-kiang, China's vast central river. Up this they sailed to Nanking, the ancient Chinese capital from before the days of the Manchu emperors. Here a large Manchu army had been gathered, and many of its soldiers fought most bravely in their wild undisciplined way. When they were defeated, their general calmly committed suicide. Nanking was stormed; its mob broke loose, and hideous scenes of bestiality were enacted in its streets. Is it strange that the Chinese thought of these English invaders as barbarians more savage and terrible than the fiercest tribes from the deserts of central Asia!

VIII-21

China, however, showed no signs of submission, and despite her numerous defeats and great losses, created new armies from her inexhaustible supply. She paid large sums of money to German officers to drill her soldiers; telegraph lines were hastily constructed, connecting the capital with all parts of the empire; the Foo-chau defences were repaired and strengthened, and Port Arthur rendered seemingly impregnable.

During this time Hong-kong was employed by both China and France as a base of operations. Each complained of the other, and England was forced to regard the blockade of Formosa as an actual declaration of war, and to shut out the two parties from the use of Hong-kong. Little inconvenience was caused to China because her coasts were so near, but since the French had no supply station of their own in those waters, they were in great difficulty.

The highly unsatisfactory condition of affairs caused the British legation to urge the contestants to discuss terms of peace. As a consequence, preliminaries looking to that end were arranged at Peking in April, 1885. It must be understood that France was in a most embarrassing situation, for she could make no real conquest of Annam without placing an immense army there, and there was a crying out at home against the lamentable loss of life that had already taken place in those pestilential jungles.

Moreover, the Chinese were perfectly aware of this sentiment in Paris and throughout France, and, when the negotiations opened, they met the Frenchmen with their usual cunning. The French were firmly persuaded that they were entitled to a large indemnity and important concessions, but the Chinese knowing their advantage, refused absolutely to yield either point, and scored an important diplomatic victory. The terms of the treaty agreed that Annam was to have no diplomatic relations except through France, and two towns in Southern China were to be opened to foreign trade and the residence of consuls. But as stated, the French failed to secure an indemnity or any important concession, being denied even the right to build such railways as China might decide to introduce. What a grim comment upon the whole business was the special commission called together in Paris to decide whether it was worth while to keep Tong-king, which had already cost France $50,000,000, to say nothing of the lives lost.

The difficulties with France proved to China that her own self-preservation demanded the adoption, to a certain extent at least, of Western methods and Western civilization. Her sister nation Japan had done so and was making marvellous strides in power: it would be fatal for the Flowery Kingdom to lag behind.

It would be more truthful to say that not China herself, but a few of her far-seeing citizens like Li Hung Chang were convinced of this truth, but the

conservatism of the empire was hardly shakable; nothing less than an earthquake could affect that.

The young Emperor Kwang-su took the reins of government nominally into his hands in February, 1887, but the empress dowager continued in her regency until March, 1889, when, having selected a bride for her imperial ward, she retired, only to come forth again with an aggressive energy which drew the attention of the civilized world to her.

Some few of the feeble forward steps taken by China should be noted. In the same year that the Emperor reached his majority, a dozen officials were sent abroad to study European civilization, and the science of mathematics was added, to the dry, almost useless subjects required in competitive examinations.

It has proved a tremendous task to introduce railways into the empire, though Li Hung Chang repeatedly urged the adoption of a complete rail communication throughout the country. In 1883, by a sly piece of trickery, he had built a line part of the way to the Kaiping coal mines, and while the coming Emperor was a boy, he captivated him by sending a complete working model of engine, tender, and cars to be placed upon rails laid for his amusement in the palace garden. Li secured the adoption of plans for constructing four main lines: from Peking to Tientsin and the coast; from Tientsin to Nanking; from Nanking to Shanghai; and from Canton to Nanning in the south. The building of these would have marked a most important era in the history of China, but every one was abandoned, though in 1888 a road was opened from Tientsin through Taku to Kaiping, not quite a hundred miles, and the construction of others has since been brought about by the war with Japan.

But hopeful as the promises of progress appeared to be, there were more numerous and more ominous signs of the dreaded reaction. No reform can be introduced without injury to the interests of many, and these people became venomous in their opposition to any change sought or brought about by foreigners. By the close of the year 1888 the tide of public sentiment was fully turned against Western reform and improvement.

One day indeed the Emperor sent Li Hung Chang a cordial invitation to come to Peking to receive honors and hospitalities. Li knew the real meaning of the courtesy was that he was to be executed. The ruler, by some intrigue, had been set against him and meant to cut off his head, so the powerful viceroy paid no attention to the first nor to the second invitation. Then a peremptory order came, to which he replied that he was the slave of the Son of Heaven and would cheerfully obey the command, but he blandly asked that accommodations be provided for the 15,000 soldiers who would accompany him to Peking. Back came word from the Emperor that he had reconsidered the

ADVANCE OF THE TAIPINGS

(The Religious Fanatics March Against Nanking)

From a drawing by the recent French artist, A. Paris

WHEN Tau-kwang died in 1850, the Chinese Empire seemed on the verge of dissolution through its accumulated miseries. Moreover, the next sovereign, Hien-fung, was a feeble youth of eighteen, almost as incompetent as his father had been. Yet so slowly do affairs move in that vast and ancient land that the Manchu government still continued for more than sixty years. It did, however, have to face a serious rebellion, known as that of the Taipings. This was partly religious, partly patriotic, and wholly desperate and bloodthirsty. A Chinaman of the lower classes, named Hung, claimed to be inspired by God to overthrow the Manchu Emperors. He had heard something of Christianity, seen something of the warlike power of the Christian foreigners, and proclaimed himself and his followers Christians. In reality he seems to have known scarcely anything of the religion he adopted, and his followers were banded for murder and for plunder. They appeared first in the far southwest of China and gradually spread eastward, fighting with fanatic fury. In 1853 they reached the height of their success by capturing the ancient capital Nanking, and massacring its entire garrison of twenty thousand Manchus.

While this movement was in its infancy, the Europeans who had begun to spread along the Chinese coast, hoped that the Taiping chief was really destined to establish a Christian empire. His barbarity soon undeceived them, and his antagonism to them armed them against him. European military officers began to offer their aid to the Chinese government to train its soldiers against the dreaded Taipings.

VIII-23

invitation, and begged Li not to make his visit nor to bring his army near the capital.

The hatred of foreigners grew in intensity, and a plan of resistance was formed against all measures that originated in the outside world. A still more fearful policy of "removing" such "foreign devils" as were dangerous to the empire crystallized, and inevitably culminated in alarming violence and crime. Naturally this enmity was mainly directed against the missionaries and their converts living in the interior. These people were helpless and there were many victims, the attack on them being due not so much to the religion which they taught as to the fact that they were foreigners.

Many of the Catholic and Protestant missionary establishments were burned, and the converts maltreated, while the most savage of the barbarian assailants claimed that the Emperor and the magistrates had ordered that Christianity should be rooted out of the empire. Appeal being made to Peking by the missionaries they were paid for the loss of their houses. Where there had been flagrant violence, a few of those supposed to be guilty had their heads lopped off. Permission was given the missionaries to rebuild, whereupon the rioters destroyed the buildings again. Nothing could lessen the resolve of the common people to drive the Christians out of the country.

The most pitiful victims were the native converts. Their fellow countrymen looked upon them as detestable traitors deserving the torture, to which they were eager to subject them. When these converts applied to the authorities for protection, they were coolly told that it could be granted only on condition that they renounced the new faith. To their credit be it recorded, that nearly all chose death rather than apostasy. Judges, officials, and people were determined to make the land unendurable to every foreigner. The extreme was reached in 1895–96, when all the Christian missionaries were expelled from the capital and principal towns of the Sze-chuen province, though afterward the imperial authorities were frightened into reinstating them.

To understand the furious hatred of the populace against European religions, read the following translation of a placard posted on the streets of Wahu:

"The country is betrayed and the people are ruined! Human beings are trampled down and reduced to dust. Such being the state of affairs we humbly beg to state the following. Wahu is a treaty port thickly populated with foreigners, who cause people injury to an extent that it is impossible for the pen fully to describe. Lately the missions are building churches in every portion of the place. Every convert is paid a monthly sum of $6, and it is by such means that ignorant males and females are led to enter the churches where men and women congregate together without discrimination. This breach of morality and custom is in itself a violation of the fixed laws of the state.

Now women are procured from other places and are paid to abduct children whose eyes and intestines are taken out, and whose heart and kidneys are cut off. What crimes have these innocent children committed that they should suffer such horrible deaths? What makes it more lamentable is that when a child is stolen the child's family also perish. The loss of one's own flesh and blood is so deeply felt that the acute mental pain drives one to wish for death —quick apoplexy or suicide generally follows. But their [the missionaries] sins have reached the limit, and the vengeance of heaven is ready to burst forth. On the 3d of this moon two female child-thieves went to Honan and abducted a child by drugging him. The child's mother saw the act and called out to him, but he was unable to speak, looking stupefied. The people, on apprehending the two abductresses, discovered on their persons two bottles containing drugs for stupefying children. They were taken to the street patrol's office and thence to the magistrate's yamen. The foreign priests hearing of the matter at once sent a bribe of 600 taels to the magistrate, who on receiving the money returned the two abductresses in sedan chairs to the church. The priests steal and kill Chinese children, and their crimes should have been expiated with death punishment; but the god of wealth bought off their lives. Money is superior to law; the precious Code and Golden Rules are misapplied. It shows the magistrate's intention of exterminating our Chinese race, and of assisting barbarian thieves."

This manifesto closed with a passionate appeal to the people to continue their work of destruction and not to rest until every foreign devil was driven out of the country. Similar documents were extensively circulated, and the proofs of good organization in many of the mobs left no doubt that a concerted movement against every foreigner was on foot. Moreover, while the proof was difficult to establish, the conspiracy beyond a doubt included all classes, from the governor-general to the bottom. Here and there a few leaders of the mobs were identified, and in every instance were men of distinction.

In 1891, a rebellion broke out in Eastern Mongolia, during which several hundred villages of native converts were destroyed, and more than a hundred of the people killed. The insurrection thus started reached such formidable proportions that it required a determined effort on the part of the government to suppress it. The authorities must have been seriously vexed, for they beheaded the three magistrates of the towns who failed to repress the uprising. It is estimated that twenty thousand rebels were exterminated before the suppression of the revolts in January, 1892.

The anti-foreign spirit would not down. The protests of civilized representatives and the imperial edicts could not check the circulation of inflammatory publications, particularly in the Yang-tse-kiang towns, and the only for-

THE STORMING OF PEKING

(A European Force Captures the Capital and Opens China to Europeans)

Reproduced from an English print of the period

WHILE China was thus rent almost in twain by the Taiping uprising, she was having more and more difficulty with the encroaching foreigners. Other nations, French, Russians, Germans, followed behind the English, each seeking a share of the vastly profitable Chinese trade. Missionaries penetrated the land also, though when we consider the thousands upon thousands of Chinamen who were slain by the guns of the "foreign devils" we can scarcely be surprised that the natives hated the missionaries quite as much as they did the other Europeans, and were seldom converted except for selfish or treacherous reasons.

At Canton, the "open port," there were repeated conflicts increasing in intensity until in 1857 French and British ships united in bombarding and almost wholly destroying the great city. Then they sailed north along the coast to threaten Peking. Again, as when the English fleet had approached the capital before, the Chinese court agreed to everything if the foreign ships would only return to Canton. They did so, but the European peace envoys were afterward refused admission to Peking. So in 1860 the ships returned, fought their way up the river on which Peking lies and landed troops, who forced the gates of Peking and held possession of the Chinese capital. Under this compulsion the Chinese granted the foreigners all the privileges they demanded. The country was opened to all, and travelers, traders and missionaries flocked thither.

VIII-24

eigners who could be deemed safe were those under the guns of their own men-of-war, or who were guarded by armed volunteers.

The Chinese-Japanese war broke out during the height of this excitement (1894). It had its origin in the attempt of Japan to acquire a controlling influence in Corea, the Hermit Kingdom, over which China had long held some vague claim of suzerainty. The success of Japan was astounding in its completeness. Her troops invaded Corea, won a battle at Ping-yang, and drove the Chinese out of the disputed province. The Chinese fleet of modern naval vessels was completely defeated off the Yalu River (September 17, 1894), and such ships as escaped were afterward captured by the Japanese. The victorious troops, meanwhile, pressed on into Manchuria and captured Port Arthur and also Wei-hai-wei; the two points of defence leading to the inner gulf before Chi-li, the province wherein Peking lies. The terrified Chinese sued for peace, paid a large indemnity, and ceded to Japan the island of Formosa (1895).

It was during this war that Li Hung Chang's power rose to its highest point. He did his utmost to mould the inefficient army into shape, and had he been assisted as he should have been, there might have been a different story to tell. It is due to him that China's navy was built, her two naval fortresses occupied, naval and military schools established, coal mines opened, a merchant marine organized, a large army partly trained, and a railway constructed to meet that of Siberia.

In the negotiations with Japan at the conclusion of the war between the two countries, Li Hung Chang showed remarkable courage and tact. He declined the proposal of an armistice, willing that the Japanese should do their worst before he complied with the conditions demanded. Very fortunately for the Yellow Empire at this crisis, a Japanese assassin came so near killing Li that the surgeons dared not remove the bullet from his face. That grievous wound so aroused the sympathy of the Japanese Emperor that he granted the armistice with the hard conditions removed.

Li's criticisms of the treaty were acute, and led to concessions which never could have been obtained by other means. One of these concessions was the deduction of a hundred million dollars in silver from the indemnity at first demanded and another was the withdrawal of the claim for the cession of Mukden, the old Manchurian capital, and the strip of land between that and the fortieth parallel.

It need hardly be added that Li was enormously wealthy, for he would not have been a true Chinaman had he failed to improve his opportunities. He was ranked by many as among the few richest people in the world. He received the Yellow Jacket, which Kwang-su in one of his pets took away, but

restored again. This garment, with the coat of imperial color, carries with it the highest military grade in the Chinese army.

The visit of Li Hung Chang to the United States, a few years ago, is well remembered. He was treated with the honor due his exalted rank, and his delightful impudence in quizzing men and ladies, no matter how high their station, was one of the most amusing features of his tour through the country. He also visited Europe and was everywhere received with distinguished honor. In England the great statesman, Gladstone, paid him particular respect and courtesy. At the time of the Boxer outbreak, Li was viceroy of Chi-li, and his course in that trying and responsible position is still to be told. This able and venerable statesman died from stomach disease at Peking, November 7, 1901.

A more important result of the Japanese war was the fact that many Chinese statesmen at last opened their eyes to the necessity of adopting European ideas and improvements. The young Emperor himself seems to have made a determined effort to throw off the influence of the old dowager empress and head the party of progress. It was this, apparently, that roused the old lady from her semi-retirement. She planned to depose him; he planned to arrest her. Public sympathy, or rather the ineradicable prejudice of the nation, was on her side. The Emperor's own soldiers seized him and made him her prisoner. He was secluded in one of the palaces in the heart of the "Sacred City," which lies as a town within a town, hidden in Peking.

All who were connected with him in his work of reform were degraded, and the chief of them, Kong Yo Wai, would have lost his head, but for the friendship of the British consul, who got him out of the country in time to escape the infuriated empress. She issued an edict that she had again assumed control of the government, because of the ill-health of the Emperor.

It is said that when the Emperor was a youth, some of the missionaries presented a Chinese translation of the Bible to the empress dowager. While it failed of any effect upon her, the Emperor became profoundly interested, not only in that but in the general literature of the Western world. Thus the actual beginning of imperial reform was with the missionaries, who, unintentionally, brought about the overthrow of the Emperor and the recent territorial loss to the empire. Germany seized Kiao-chau because of a missionary trouble, and that caused the Russian occupation of Port Arthur and the British occupation of Wei-hai-wei.

It was in alarm at these transgressions that the Emperor resorted to the measures of reform which resulted in his downfall. Kwang-su's failure in its turn gave birth to the Po Wong Woey or Chinese Reform Party, which was a direct cause of the Boxer uprising, with all its attendant atrocities.

The aim of the Po Wong Woey is to overturn the traditions and the seclu

siveness that have existed for fifty centuries, and throw open the Flowery Kingdom to the civilized world, with the influx of public schools and improvements, the construction of a powerful navy and a merchant marine, and, in short, to make China a leading factor in the civilization and progress of mankind. It is said that this society to-day numbers 30,000,000 Chinese subjects, steadily growing, and with an influence felt throughout all the ramifications of the empire. Juntas of the Reform Party flourish in the leading foreign countries. Macao is the headquarters and there are branches in Hong Kong, San Francisco, Portland, Tacoma, Los Angeles, Seattle, Vancouver, and Honolulu. They may be found, too, in New York, Montreal, and Great Britain. It is estimated that about nine-tenths of the Mongols in the Western hemisphere contribute to the support of the Reform Party, whose leading purpose is to save the Chinese empire from dismemberment. This society it is stated has already a fund of $25,000,000 at command. Its platform is broad enough to include all who wish to save their motherland from being wrenched asunder. But for the outbreak of 1900, this gigantic organization would have struck a decisive blow for China not later than the opening of the twentieth century.

The most formidable opposition to the movement is the organzation of the reactionary element in different forms throughout the empire, with the empress dowager as the supreme head. The chief anti-foreign societies are the Boxers and the Bit Swords, who have a ferocious ally in the piratical "Order of the Red Flag," whose members prowl off the southern and southeastern coasts. Nothing can attest more clearly the friendship of the empress dowager for these diabolical societies than her repeated attempts to supplant Kwang-su with the nine-year-old son of Prince Tuan, the head of the Boxers and the Bit Sword Society.

RUSSIANS FORCING CHINESE TO WORK IN MANCHURIA

THE WALLS OF PEKING

Chapter CXLVI

THE BOXER OUTBREAK

WHEN the word "Boxer" was heard at the beginning of the late troubles, nearly every one outside of China was mystified over its meaning. The best authorities say that the name is a misnomer, for, though pugilism and wrestling are practised to some extent, boxing, as we understand it, is entirely unknown in China. The name employed by the Boxers themselves is *ch'uen*, meaning literally "the fist," and the phrase *ta ch'uen t'ou* means to practise pugilism. Their exercises, however, consist of the repetition of words supposed to act as charms, violent contortions of the body, which appear to induce a state of trance, during which the subjects are supposed to deliver occult messages respecting the movement to the spectators. According to Rev. George T. Candlin in *The Open Court*, the association has given itself two slightly varying names, which are equally used. They are *I Ho Chuen* and the *I Ho T'Uan*, the correct translation of which is Volunteer Associated Fists and Volunteer Associated Train-bands. The aim of the association is the expulsion of foreigners and all things foreign from China, and the restoration of the empire to its former position of exclusion and self-sufficiency.

The insurrection began in the province of Shantung, where the enmity to foreigners has been of the most virulent character ever since the war with Japan. Thus, in 1897, this sentiment found expression in the murder of two German Catholic missionaries. The penalty was the establishment of a Ger-

man foothold in Shantung and the Gulf of Pe-chi-li, followed by the English and Russian footholds in the same province. China was forced to cede Kiao-chau to Germany; Wei-hai-wei to England, and Port Author and Talien to Russia. This pilfering of Chinese territory stirred the natives of North China to the exploding point, and the Boxer uprising therefore had its birth in that section of the empire.

An important and interesting question is whether this outbreak was encouraged by the imperial authorities. The preponderating evidence is that it was. In an interview with Monsignor Anzer, the Roman Catholic Bishop of Meridional Shantung, published in the London *Times*, that gentleman stated that after the territorial concessions to Europeans made in Shantung, the Peking authorities sent Viceroy Yu Shien to that province for the express purpose of stirring up a movement against the foreigners. He ordered his subordinates to begin their hostile demonstrations and they obeyed. The Viceroy appealed to the societies in his province and especially to the Big Knife Society. All of these responses not being vigorous enough to suit him, he turned to the affiliated members in other provinces. This was in May, June, and July, 1899, and Bishop Anzer warned the Chinese government that the Big Knife sect would probably turn against the reigning dynasty, for their chief looked upon himself as the true Emperor of China and more than once had appeared before his followers clad in yellow or imperial colors. But the movement was set on foot and spread beyond the boundaries of Shantung province, the extraordinary spectacle being presented of all the societies inimical to the Manchu dynasty uniting in its support. For while millions of Chinese are resolute enemies of the Manchu dynasty, and are impatiently awaiting the hour for overturning it, and restoring the Ming emperors who were dethroned nearly three hundred years ago, yet for the moment all these elements united in the single determination of rooting out the foreigners. Their opposition to the dowager empress was sunk in the deeper opposition to the outside barbarians. The motto of the Boxers it is stated was "Pao-Sing, Mie-Yang," or, "Support the dynasty; exterminate the foreigners."

On the demand of the German government, Yu Shien, governor of the Shantung province, was removed, but given a place of equal importance and honor. His successor continued, without reproach from the court, his persecution of the foreigners. It was in the nature of things that the treacherous empress dowager, an intense hater herself of white people, should be gratified by the personal loyalty of the Boxers. She had a weakness for them, and when forced by foreign governments to issue a decree because of the outrages against secret societies, she specially excepted societies which had for their objects corporal exercise and preparation for military service, or in other words,

athletic societies, such as the Boxers could, with very good reason, claim to be.

Finally, a formal demand was made upon the empress dowager, at a special audience, by the representatives of the Powers, that the government take immediate measures to suppress the Boxers. Our minister, Mr. Conger, in accordance with instructions from Washington, was present, acting independently though concurrently with the other ministers in this peremptory demand. He expressed little faith in the empress dowager in his messages to the State Department, but strongly suspected she was behind the Boxers.

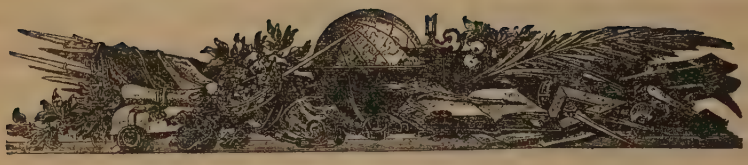
The reports showed that the Boxer movement was spreading swiftly in the province of Chi-li, with great destruction of railway and telegraph lines and of mission stations. The danger grew every hour. The missionaries were ordered by the various boards to leave their stations without delay and hasten to the seaports; but when they attempted to do so, they found the roads blocked by hordes of Boxers and many turned back to the capital as their only refuge. In Peking, Chinese guns were trained on the American mission and the British legation. The anxious foreigners began to erect defences, and our own legation building was soon defended by a complete embankment.

On June 12, a member of the Japanese legation was murdered in the streets of Peking, either by soldiers or Boxers, and news came that all the foreign residents and refugees were besieged in their legation compounds.

None of us will ever forget the summer of 1900, when the eyes of the civilized world were turned toward Peking, where it was known that many missionaries, their wives and children and others were hemmed in and besieged by a horde of Boxers, all clamorous for the lives of the innocent and apparently helpless people. It seemed impossible that a single one could escape, and yet the rumors, some apparently authenticated, kept alive the hopes of those who were unwilling to believe in their destruction until such proof were absolutely established. There were hours when every cheering ray vanished, and once an assemblage of mourning friends gathered in London to hold a memorial service for the victims. Then some news would filtrate through the wall of human hate, that kindled hope once more, and drove away sleep until aid and succor should be hurried to Peking, where, at best, the resistance could not be continued many days longer.

We now know that all *did* escape the fury of the mob, to whom mercy was as much a stranger as it is to the wolf or the jungle tiger. It is a wonderful story and one of the most impressive illustrations of how Providence often overrules and overturns, when man is unable to do anything for himself.

Early in June, warships of the various nations began to gather off Taku, the port at the mouth of the Pei-ho River, leading to Peking. A message was



THE FRENCH IN INDO-CHINA

(Repulse of the French from Langson Teaches China Where Her Strength Lies)

From a sketch made on the spot by A. Tofani

CHINA had now to face a far greater danger than the invasion of foreign trade. The military weakness of the country, as revealed to the Europeans who explored the land after 1860, led inevitably to plans of conquest. At first freedom of traffic had been the only European goal, but soon the "partition of China" became a phrase familiar to diplomatic circles. The first Power to make an actual seizure of part of the Chinese Empire was France. The southern region now known as Indo-China, including Burmah, Annam, etc., had long been annexed to the Empire, its princes sending regular tribute to Peking. A French fleet seized a trading port in Annam as early as 1858 and thence gradually extended French authority over the surrounding region until 1884, when Hue, the capital of Annam, was stormed and captured. Its king was compelled to abandon China and acknowledge France as his overlord.

This led to a confused Chinese-French war. The two main governments kept protesting their desire for peace while their troops met in fierce conflict along the borderland of Annam and China proper. The chief fighting was around the fortress of Langson. Finally, the Chinese agreed to abandon Annam to France and to surrender Langson on a certain date. The French commander, growing impatient of delay, attacked Langson with a small force and was defeated with heavy loss. China learned an important fact: the foreigners could ravage her coast cities with impunity; but expeditions inland cost the Europeans enormously in money and in lives. France expended fifty million dollars before she finally won possession of Annam, which has never repaid her for its cost.

VIII-27

received from Mr. Conger and Sir Claude Macdonald, the American and British ministers at Peking, telling of the grave danger, and urgently asking that more guards be sent to them. A meeting of the consuls was called, at which the Russians and French showed some opposition to answering the call. The American, Captain McCalla, lost patience and declared that he, at any rate, was going to the help of the imperilled ones. The British were of the same mind. Troops were landed the next day (June 10), and the British and Americans took train for Peking, starting early in the forenoon. The train contained 112 American sailors, besides the British sailormen and marines. Two other trains moved out during the day, one taking more British, and the Austrians, Italians, and Japanese, while the last brought the rest of the British and the Germans. On the next day, a fourth train carried the French and Russians. The total force thus dispatched was British, 915; Americans, 112; Italians, 40; Austrians, 25; French, 100; Germans, 450; Russians, 112; Japanese 54, the whole number being 1,808. All were well armed, and they had more than a dozen pieces of artillery.

The trains had not gone far when ominous signs appeared. The track was torn up. Material for its repair had been taken along, and with the least delay the necessary work was done. At the third station, Lofa, the repairs were completed in time for the four trains to depart on the morning of June 11, a guard of thirty men being left to protect the place and line. The destruction increased as the train advanced, and on the afternoon of the 10th, while the men were repairing the line, the pickets raised the cry that the Boxers were coming. The working party was some distance ahead of the train, and the Boxers were trying to cut them off. They came running down the track on both sides of the line, the cavalry at the rear and without any military formation. The commands that rang out from the allies were in so many different languages that some confusion was inevitable, but when men are brave, their own intelligence and gesture and action make speech plain to all. In the course of a few minutes, the troops were formed into six companies and marched out to meet the Boxers, who were then quite near. There was a brief, spiteful exchange, and then the poorly armed rebels took to flight, having hurt nobody, but leaving more than thirty of their own number dead.

The road was so badly torn up that it was like laying a new one, but all toiled hard and on the afternoon of June 12 the trains were able to push some distance beyond the station known as Lang-Fang, where they went into camp. The next morning the construction had gone but a little way when the Boxers appeared again. They charged down in a scrambling rush, but were scattered with the loss of several, while they hit none of the white men. Soon after, however, they attacked in larger numbers and with better formation. There

was some confusion as before among the allies and from the same cause. The situation grew rapidly worse. It was found that not only were the tracks torn up in front, but the embankments had been destroyed, thus ending all possibility of repairing the line. The railway was useless, and besides, the Boxers began to appear in the rear of the column, which was likely to be caught between two fires. Poorly armed and disciplined as were the Chinese, their numbers were so overwhelming that the small allied force would soon be in greater danger than the legationers at Peking, for the latter had strong buildings and walls to shield them, while the soldiers were in the open. The losses of the Boxers were great, but they too were beginning to secure victims and their attacks were incessant. Vice-Admiral Seymour and Captain McCalla decided that only one course remained for saving themselves and their men: that was to retreat without delay. The start was made on the afternoon of June 19.

This return as far as Tientsin, a large city some thirty miles from the mouth of the Pei-ho, was pressed in the face of the most trying difficulties and the gravest perils. As a newspaper correspondent stated, "every inch of the way was contested." Two days after the retreat began it became evident that the Chinese regulars were fighting with the Boxers. A steady rifle fire took the place of the sword and spear. It required an hour of hard fighting with considerable loss to drive the Chinese out of Peit-sang, where they had excellent cover and handled several field guns with effect. Just below the town, the column made the fight of the expedition. The place was held by 2,000 Chinese regulars with artillery and cavalry, and they used smokeless powder, so that it was impossible to locate them. Four hours of hard fighting failed to dislodge the enemy, and the column lost severely in killed and wounded, the Americans suffering the most.

The fight of the 21st convinced some of the officers and most of the men that they would never be able to reach Tientsin unless relief came to them from below. The intention was to renew the fighting next day, but during the night the Chinese were heavily reinforced. No word had been received from Tientsin for eight days, and it was decided to try to reach the city by a night march. The column, starting a little after midnight of June 22, advanced a mile unmolested, this being the first mile travelled for three days without fighting. Only a little way farther, however, signal fires were seen on both sides of the river, and, as the advance guard approached a village, it was fired upon from behind the walls of some of the huts. A brisk charge routed the Chinese without loss to the assailants. One of the junks carrying the allies' guns sank, leaving the column with only the two Maxim guns and the nine-pounder which the British were dragging. About the middle of the afternoon, a savage fight

KWANG-SU'S AUTHORITY PROCLAIMED

(The Imperial Heralds Announce the Empress' Retirement)

From a painting by the English artist, R. Caton Woodville

IN the year 1887 the Empress Tsi-hssi issued a proclamation announcing that the young Emperor Kwang-su was to begin conducting his own government; and she did gradually transfer to him more and more power. In 1889 she selected a bride and prepared a solemn wedding just as she had done before for her own son, Kwang-su's ill-fated predecessor. After that Tsi-hssi was no more heard from publicly for nearly a decade.

During that time China rapidly assimilated European knowledge. Manchu nobles of high rank were sent abroad to schools and colleges. Li Hung Chang, the viceroy of the young Emperor, interested his master in railroads, and had one begun to reach from the coast to Peking. Gradually, however, the Emperor became embittered against foreigners, and only by the utmost shrewdness and boldness was Li Hung Chang able to prevent his master from adopting a violent anti-European attitude. The common people also began to express their bitterness by attacks upon foreigners in distant provinces. Isolated missionaries were slain. Then the European governments hit upon the expedient of demanding the surrender of territory in requittal for the attacks upon the missions. The only obstacle to the complete division of China among the various European nations seemed to be the jealousy of each as to what the others might gain. Li Hung Chang, like a juggler, matched one foreign government against another, keeping them skilfully apart while he retained his own official rank, despite the ever-growing discontent of the feeble Emperor.

VIII-28

took place at the arsenal, which was captured after a gallant struggle. The chief fighting was done by the British, Germans, and Americans. Commander Bucholtz, of the *Kaiserin Augusta*, received a wound from which he died shortly afterward, but the capture of the place with its guns and a plentiful supply of ammunition doubtless saved the column from annihilation. The Chinese in large numbers kept up a vicious attack, but a severe storm on the afternoon of June 23 gave the tired little force a chance to gain a much needed rest. The column was now so near Tientsin that rockets were sent up as a call for help. They were answered, but to make sure, two messengers were sent thither. One failed and doubtless was killed, but the other, a boy, the son of Lieutenant Bigham of the Grenadier Guards, got through. He was captured by the Boxers, but while they were searching him he swallowed the bit of paper containing writing, and convinced his captors that he was as good a Boxer as they. As it was, it took a day for him to deliver his message. A strong column was sent to the assistance of Seymour and his brave band, and they were extricated from their perilous position. The remainder of the march to Tientsin was unopposed, though it was very slow, owing to the wounded, of whom there were nearly 200. The total losses were 374. It was not until June 26 that Vice-Admiral Seymour and Captain McCalla re-entered the settlements of Tientsin. They had been absent sixteen days, during which war had developed. Not only had the relief of Peking failed for the moment; it was delayed for weeks.

Meanwhile, important events had been transacted at the mouth of the Pei-ho. On June 17th, the Chinese forts at Taku began a vague and harmless fire on the foreign warships assembled there. These promptly returned the cannonade, and after seven hours' bombardment blew up two of the forts. Troops were then landed, which attacked the other fortifications, stormed them, and compelled their surrender.

Considerable dissatisfaction was felt in this country because in this combined attack on the Taku forts our forces took no part. The forts, it was said, had opened fire in obedience to orders from Peking. Our Admiral Kempff, however, closely followed his instructions from Washington to act concurrently with the other foreign commanders for the protection of Americans and foreigners. The admiral disapproved of the attack, not as unjust, but as inexpedient, so long as the allies were powerless to save the imperilled legationers in Peking. The attack on the forts could accomplish nothing except to exasperate the Chinese, whose mood was already dangerous. The admiral further took the position that hostilities for the time were not properly with the Chinese government, but with the turbulent rebels, the Boxers. To attack the forts, therefore, would be to attack the government, and amount to a virtual

declaration of war, the hour for which had not yet arrived. This view proved correct.

A few days later vague news reached the allies, that on June 20, Baron von Ketteler, the German Minister, while proceeding on a diplomatic mission to the Tsung-li-Yamen, in Peking, had been attacked by Chinese soldiers and killed. On the 21st the allied warships moved up the river and shelled Tientsin. Their combined forces occupied the foreign quarter of the city, but its main portion remained in Chinese hands. On June 25th the Chinese government requested an armistice through Minister Wu at Washington. Prompt reply was made that free communication must first be allowed with the legations. These messages recognized that the state of affairs closely approached war.

The Chinese soon made a resolute attempt to retake the portion of Tientsin held by the allies. There were two small fights on the morning of July 1. The Russians to the north of the city attempted to drive away what they believed to be a few Chinese. A party of Cossacks with artillery advanced against the Chinese and found them to be a large force, which began so hot a fire, that the Russians were compelled to retire. One cause of the repulse was the smokeless powder used by the Chinese, which made it impossible to locate them clearly.

Soon after this affair, 500 Japanese, Americans, Welsh Fusiliers and Indian Sikhs set out, amid a drenching rainstorm, to reconnoitre a fort north of the Chinese city. The storm made the roads so heavy that the artillery was moved with difficulty. Another strong force of the enemy was uncovered, and the allies were obliged to return without accomplishing the object of their reconnoissance. Throughout most of the forenoon, the Chinese shelled the settlements, and rifle bullets pattered in the streets all day, but no special harm was done.

On the night of July 2, the Chinese sharply attacked the Russians, holding the railway bridge and stations. A hot rifle fire lasted for three hours, while now and then a screeching shell was heard amid the din. The Russians were so hard pressed that a body of French infantry went to their help. Further to the left of the allies a few Sikhs, and a part of a British-Chinese regiment from Wei-hai-wei were engaged with the Chinese occupying the villages across the river between the settlements and the native city. By eleven o'clock the whole line was in action, the fighting continuing with scarcely an interruption for four hours.

The Chinese again began shelling the settlements at eight o'clock the next morning. They had hastily erected a fort two miles northeast of the French concession, and had four guns mounted in a village north of the railway station. They had also two or three guns in the native city.

WAR WITH JAPAN

(General Yeh Leads the Chinese Forth From Peking)

After a Chinese sketch made on the spot

THE ancient civilization of the Chinese taught them to despise war. They entered it only upon compulsion, and gave no heed to military glory. The Manchus, however, still clung to their pride in the greatness of their empire. They had yielded perforce to the armed ships of Europe, but when one of their own Asiatic neighbors attempted to dictate to them in similar fashion, they resented it haughtily. This caused the Chinese-Japanese war of 1894.

Both China and Japan held some claim to suzerainty over the little kingdom of Corea. Japan, which had been rapidly assimilating modern civilization, attempted to extend its benefits over Corea. The Coreans objected to any change and appealed to China to protect them. China ordered the Japanese "barbarians" to leave Corea alone; and the angry Chinese Emperor sent his chief commander, General Yeh, to lead the imperial army forth from Peking to the defense of Corea. In defiant response Japanese soldiers seized the Corean capital and king.

The Chinese army was at this time in a transition state. Under the training of European officers, modern weapons had been introduced and modern tactics studied. But the Chinese still clung to many of their old methods. General Yeh still believed in frightening the enemy by noise and fury. So his troops were roused to set out with as much uproar as possible, while repeated proclamations told of the terrible things which were to be done to the wicked Japanese.

VIII-29

The Russians marched north of the railway station with three guns, and had another mounted on a mud wall east of the town where the railway crosses. This was quickly located by the Chinese, who knocked it down the bank, killing four men and wounding several. The courage and marksmanship displayed by the Mongols were a surprise anything but pleasant for the allies. This was demonstrated again when the British force loaned to the Russians the 12-pounder of the *Terrible*, whose position it was necessary twice to shift, owing to the accurate fire of the Chinese. The shelling of the settlements became very severe, the British concession being struck by numerous large shrapnel. The women and children were ordered into the cellars of the town hall for safety.

At noon the Japanese infantry and a mountain battery advanced to the support of the Russians. The captain and three men of the battery were killed and a lieutenant and ten men wounded, but with only 60 officers and men, it silenced the battery on the native city wall. The bravery of the Japanese roused the admiration of their friends. Indeed, here and elsewhere throughout the war, these gallant little fellows proved that their only fault was their headlong intrepidity, which sometimes approached rashness. They were so eager to get at the enemy, that they spurned the caution of the Europeans.

The fighting ended at 5 o'clock in the afternoon, the ammunition of the Japanese being exhausted. The situation for the allies was grave. Reinforcements came in slowly, the railway line back to Taku was practically worthless, and river transportation slow and uncertain. There was no telegraphic communication with Taku, and the need for cavalry and artillery was urgent. Yet the secure holding of Tientsin was absolutely necessary before advancing against Peking.

The Chinese delivered a few scattering shells on the morning of July 4, but no harm was done. Their bravery and marksmanship astonished their opponents. Those yellow fanatics who took no prisoners, and who mutilated their dead, were not fighting with spears and matchlocks and bows and arrows, but with the most improved modern weapons, and they had been trained by the best European officers. The task of conquering them was more formidable than had been expected. Although the allies were on the best of terms with one another, this fact itself interfered with successful operations. Too much politeness prevailed and the actions as a whole were disjointed. A correspondent stated that, after the events described, it took all the following day to learn what had been done, and to gain this knowledge it was necessary to visit eight different headquarters, all of which were widely separated.

The troops in Tientsin were virtually besieged. Food was scarce and prices prohibitive. An epidemic threatened and the situation became very

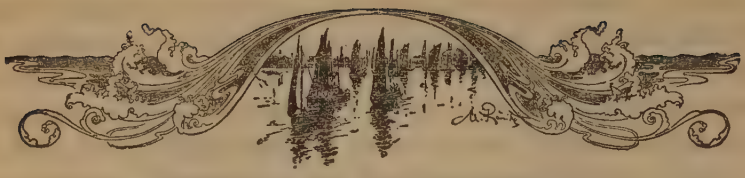
difficult. More troops were urgently needed, but at daybreak, on the morning of July 9, those on hand, about 1,000 Japanese, 400 Russians, 700 British, and 100 Americans, with cavalry and artillery, attacked the Chinese, who were engaged in placing a battery to the west of the settlements. Under protection of the artillery, the Japanese led in the assault, while the other guns were aimed against the Chinese who occupied the village below the west arsenal. The Japanese infantry routed the Chinese, who fled across the open country, where they were assailed and cut down by the Japanese cavalry, who killed fully a hundred. Meanwhile, the American and Japanese sailors reoccupied the west arsenal after a brief but sharp fight with the defenders. Four guns, several banners, and seventy rifles were captured.

Admiral Seymour, commanding the British forces, and General Fukushima, the Japanese commander, were standing on a bridge at the west arsenal watching the effect of the shelling on the native city, when the Chinese opened with shrapnel, firing with surprising accuracy. One of the shells exploded on the bridge close to Admiral Seymour, who was slightly wounded. An infantry captain was killed, and several officers and a score of men hurt. A number of the crew of the British warship *Terrible*, who had seen service in Natal, declared the fighting worse than at Ladysmith. The Chinese continued for several hours to fire upon the settlements, and a number of casualties occurred.

The 10th of July was so quiet that the allies believed the enemy were planning some dangerous movement. Nothing took place until midnight, when a fierce attack was made on the Japanese and French troops and the Sikhs posted at the railway station. The forces lost severely, the Japanese having an officer and four subalterns killed and sixty men wounded, while there were about the same number injured among the French, and some twenty of the British. troops were hurried forward from the other French and Japanese forces and the British were reinforced twice. Then a furious charge by the Japanese drove back the Chinese with heavy losses.

About an hour later the Russians made a general movement east of the native city, with the purpose of capturing a Chinese battery which caused great annoyance. The Ninth United States Infantry, which had just arrived, and the British, Japanese, and French started in to support the Russians, but on reaching the canal which they expected to pontoon, they found it a broad swamp and the movement had to be abandoned.

At earliest daybreak, July 13, the artillery opened a general attack on the native city. The Russians aimed to capture the railway fort northeast of the settlements, while the Japenese, Americans, British, Austrians, and French pushed through the west arsenal and stormed the walls of the city. The Japanese planned to shell these heavily and then breach them with gun-cotton.



ADMIRAL TING'S SURRENDER

(The Chinese Yield Their Last Defensive Post to Japan)

From a painting by the English artist, R. Caton Woodville

THERE came a time when the swift, shrewd and relentless advance of the Japanese could no longer be concealed or misrepresented. The approach to Peking by sea is defended by two powerful positions a couple of hundred miles away, guarding the north and the south shore of the ocean gulf at whose head Peking lies. The northern guardian, the great natural fortress of Port Arthur, was first reached by the advancing Japanese, and was successfully stormed. Then, their ships having defeated those of China, they landed troops to attack the southern protecting fortifications at Wei-hai-wei. These were commanded by Admiral Ting, who had fled thither with the remnant of the defeated Chinese navy. Ting defended the place bravely, desperately, but hopelessly. The Chinese had modern arms, but had not at all grasped how to use them; the Japanese had become masters of all the arts of modern war. So at length Ting and his surviving soldiers were compelled to surrender. Ting committed suicide to show his helplessness; and the Chinese Emperor and his court awoke at last to the fact that Peking was no longer defensible. Twice the Europeans had advanced against the "Imperial City"; once they had actually seized it; now the Japanese threatened to do the same.

In this juncture Li Hung Chang, the practical man who met issues as they were, was restored to the full favor of the Emperor and was sent to Japan to arrange terms of peace. He did so, yielding Corea to Japan, and all the Chinese coast around Port Arthur, and promising to pay a heavy war indemnity.

VIII-31

The Russians advanced at midnight, intending to throw pontoons across the Lutai Canal and take the fort in reverse. A strong bombardment was opened to which the reply was weak. Soon after a tremendous explosion took place near the railway fort, which led to the belief that the magazine had been fired by the 4-inch guns that were throwing lyddite.

One Chinese arsenal was captured but the next offered stubborn resistance. After an hour's shelling of the defences, the commanders had a conference and decided to attack the wall. The American marines took the extreme left of the line, the Ninth regiment the right, with the Japanese and French advancing in the centre along the road, covered by the artillery. The movement brought a furious fire from the walls and villages, while the allies were compelled to remain on open ground, not able to breach the wall, because they could not cross the deep canal confronting them.

Most of the attacking troops, when exposed to the terrific fire of the Chinese, were able to find some kind of cover, but the American Ninth regiment was caught in a bend of the river and unable to gain the slightest screen, despite a forced advance in quest of one. While leading his line, Colonel Emerson H. Liscum was killed.

Now followed the inevitable, but none the less lamentable, confusion. The Japanese commander, General Fukushima advanced along the road after the charge in the morning, while the British commander General Dorward remained at the gate of the west arsenal. About the middle of the afternoon, the Japanese leader sent a message to General Dorward asking him to protect the flank west of the south arsenal.

When this message reached the British commander he could not understand it, for the man was unable to speak English. General Dorward sent a messenger to General Fukushima, but he could not find him, and for most of the afternoon there was really no communication among the different commanders. It is said the Chinese fire was so heavy that it was impossible to send litter bearers after the wounded.

Although the murderous fire prevented the Russians from taking the fort against which they moved, they occupied the villages north of the railroad station, which had greatly troubled the allies, captured a dozen guns, and exploded a magazine. The Ninth regiment succeeded in bringing away their wounded but were obliged to leave the dead behind. The American marines held their ground, their commander, Major Waller, withdrawing some of the guard at the arsenal to the wall. The Japanese and French held their positions.

After a desperate battle, lasting from the morning before, the allies took possession of the native city on the morning of July 14. The Chinese dead were too numerous to be counted. The casualties of the allies were over 700

killed and wounded. When the British entered the native city, they rushed through the narrow streets in the hope of capturing things that would be useful in the advance upon Peking. They took one river steamer and some 200 junks. The Japanese captured the Chinese treasury where they found 1,000,000 taels of silver which they handed over to the Americans. The Chinese made their last stand within the city in a fort situated in the northeast. The Russians attempted to take it, but were repulsed with heavy loss. They withdrew with their wounded, intending to renew the attack on the following morning, but much to their disgust the Japanese were ahead of them and carried it with a bayonet charge.

July 20 was devoted to looting the native city, and the scenes were indescribable. Tientsin was filled with a wild mob of Chinese and soldiers of all nationalities, who broke open stores, smashed safes and chests, and dashed hither and thither, their arms overflowing with jewelry, money, silver bars, silks, and furs. The roads were thronged with looters carrying off their plunder. The only attempts at restraint were by the Americans and Japanese, who behaved well. As for the Russians, we are told that in every engagement they proved themselves quite as barbarous as the Chinese. They slew the wounded, burned every village they came to, and spared neither women nor children who crossed their path.

Let us quote from an English paper a word of description concerning our own troops:

"If there had been no fighting, all the foreign observers would have gone back to their homes with a very poor opinion of the efficiency of the American troops. Luckily for General Chaffee and his soldiers there was fighting. When you see an American private advancing under fire, you begin to think there is something in the idea that the fighting unit of the future is the individual. Private Silas P. Holt acts by himself, for himself. He and his companions make for a common objective not like stiff, trained soldiers, but like panthers stalking a prey. Their eyes flash, their lithe bodies swing forward. There are murder and deadly intentness in every movement. When the American soldier lies down to fire, he does so with the intention of killing somebody. Most troops fire not at the enemy, but in the direction of the enemy. Not so the American.

> "Each man drew his watchful breath, slow taken 'tween the teeth,
> Trigger and eye and ear acock, knit brow and hard-drawn lips.

"That is a picture of the American soldier firing on his foe. But allied to their feline stealthiness the Americans in battle have most reckless courage. At times they expose themselves with a strange contempt for death. An officer

will take chances no European would care to take. The field battery was generally to be found in places where nobody read in tactics would have dared to put it. General Chaffee and his staff always rode where the enemy was most likely to see and shoot at them. Young and inexperienced correspondents were warned by older hands not to go during action near prominent buildings, large graves, or the American staff."

NUNS LEAVING THEIR CONVENTS TO ESCAPE THE BOXERS

WITHIN THE WALLS OF PEKING'S CHINESE CITY

Chapter CXLVII

"ON TO PEKING!"

TIENTSIN being taken, the cry was "On to Peking!" from which several vague messages had been received. Peking (often incorrectly spelled Pekin) has been the capital of the Chinese empire since 1408, and stands about a hundred miles from the sea, in the northern province of Chi-li, sixty miles from the Great Wall. The population is estimated at nearly 3,000,000, the entire area at 27 miles, and the circuit of the walls at 25 miles. These walls are composed of earth, with an outer casing of brick; have embrasures for musketry or ordnance at every 50 feet, are 40 feet high, 30 feet thick at the bottom, and 12 feet at the top, which is paved with stone, and to which horsemen can ascend by means of a sloping way.

Peking has 16 gates, nine belonging to the Northern, or Tartar, city, and the remainder to the Southern, or Chinese, city. The two parts named are separated from each other by a wall with three gates. The Neitching, or Northern City, has three divisions,—the Forbidden City, the Imperial City, and the General City. The first, of mysterious interest, is enclosed by a yellow wall about two miles in circumference, which shuts in the palaces, pleasure grounds and temples of the sacred city. There the Emperor and his family, the ladies of the court and the attendant eunuchs live. The Emperor's private residence, grimly called the "Tranquil Palace of Heaven," is the most magnificent of all the buildings. The Imperial City is built around this central block and contains the palaces

of the princes, temples, spacious pleasure grounds and some of the government offices.

The General City lies between the Imperial City and the outer walls. It is more densely populated than either of the other two, and contains the most important of the public offices, including the various legations of foreign powers, which the allies sought to save.

Amid lowering skies and falling rain, the advance from Tientsin was begun on the afternoon of August 4. The relief force represented eight nations—British, Russians, Germans, French, Austrians, Italians, Japanese, and Americans. The Austrians and Italians had made no preparation to join the relieving column, and the Germans had only three hundred in the city, although many others were on the way. The French force was insignificant, and the real business devolved upon the Japanese, for they were the most numerous, and it seems almost right to say that they were the best of the troops, always excepting, of course, the Americans, who were certainly as brave, though showing more independence of individual action and less rigid discipline. Field Marshal von Waldersee, of the German army, was selected to command the allied forces, and met with a cordial reception from all hands.

The movement was both by land and by river, the latter so as to get most of the supplies to Tung-chou, where they were to swing off on the dash to Peking. All told, there were about twenty-two thousand fighting men in the relief column, of whom two thousand four hundred were Americans under the command of General Adna R. Chaffee, a veteran, and one of the very best fighters and officers in our army. Not counting the transportation corps, the Japanese had about twelve thousand troops, while the British had a few regular English troops, some Indian regiments, and a naval brigade of sailormen and marines, their total being some two thousand eight hundred, and they were well supplied with artillery. The Russians had about three thousand fighting men, with four eight-gun field batteries. The Frenchmen claimed to number eight hundred.

The plan was that the Russians should go up the left bank of the river with the French, while the Japanese, British, and Americans were to take the right flank, the one nearer Peking. At Peit-sang the Japs gave another of the many proofs of the admirable stuff of which they are made by a frontal attack on the Chinese in their strong intrenchments, from which, despite a murderous fire, they were routed and sent flying in a wild panic. The heat was fearful, and many of the Americans were prostrated. Nearly all flung aside their extra clothing and luggage, but the plucky Japs clung to theirs, even to the extra pair of shoes, and set the pace for all others, many of whom were not equal to the tremendous strain.

A conference was held by the commanding officers at Tung-chou on the afternoon of August 12, and it was decided to make a reconnoissance in force the next day in four roads toward Peking. Each force was to make camp seven miles from Tung-chou, and contact was to be preserved with all. On the 14th, all the forces were to be concentrated along the line of these camps and reconnoissances sent to and around the city. Every one believed it would take the hardest kind of fighting to force an entrance, and the understanding was that the general attack should be made at daylight on the morning of the 15th.

The camp was made as agreed upon, the four roads being parallel. In the afternoon, the Russians attempted to get the better of the other allies by stealing a march upon them. On what purported to be a reconnoissance, they sent out practically their whole force, whose report led their commander to violate his agreement for a joint attack. At midnight he marched against one of the Peking gates, opening into the Southern, or Chinese, city. This gate, in the course of half an hour, he succeeded in blowing open. The inner gate was forced with little difficulty, and the Russians, who more than once displayed horrible barbarity, killed all the Chinese whom they came across. Everything looked so easy that their commander believed he could push his way into the Tartar city and to the legations, and he set out to do so.

The Chinese were expecting and waiting for this very movement, and they opened with such a furious fire that ten of the eighteen battery horses were instantly killed, a number of men shot down, and the commander wounded. They made the best retreat possible, having had more than twenty killed and a hundred injured. The Chinese re-occupied the gate, and the Russian trick ended in disastrous failure.

When the Russians had effected their entrance into the city, tney sent a messenger to notify the Japanese, but he did not find Generals Yamaguchi and Fukushima until after daylight. They made dispositions at once for their own attack and notified the Americans and British of what they were doing. The Japs are never laggards, and they hurried two battalions of infantry to the southern and larger of the two gates in the east wall of the Tartar city, with a company of engineers and a quantity of gun-cotton to blow it up. The Chinese made a determined resistance. There were large numbers of them, they were well armed, and behind the best kind of cover, which commanded every foot of ground over which the Japs had to advance. The shelling of the latter was wonderful in its accuracy, but whenever it stopped in order to give the infantry a chance to rush forward, the Chinese scrambled back to their positions and poured a hot fire through the loopholes. The Japanese suffered heavily, but they never mind a thing like that, and it was decided to blow up the gate at night if it could not be done before.

LI HUNG CHANG IN EUROPE

(The English Prime-Minister Gladstone Welcomes the Equally Aged and Distinguished Chinaman)

From a painting by the English artist, W. H. Overend

THERE can be no question that to Europeans Li Hung Chang stands out as having been by far the greatest man and ablest statesman of modern China. After the Japanese war he visited the various royal governments of Europe to arrange treaties with them which should place the affairs of China on a practical basis. Thus he ended forever the stubbornness with which China's rulers had previously persisted in ignoring the facts of modern life. Li Hung Chang even managed to deprive Japan of some of the fruits of victory. The European governments insisted on her withdrawing from Port Arthur, whence she could really dominate Peking. Shortly afterward Li deliberately leased to Russia for an endless period this fortress which his own countrymen could not defend. Similarly he leased the other fortress, Wei-hai-wei, to Great Britain.

Everywhere in Europe the great Chinese statesman was received with high honor. In England he and the aged and celebrated Gladstone met and discussed affairs as equals. Li really placed his country under the protection of Europe, especially of England and Russia. He visited the United States also. China had previously hated our country because we had offended her pride by refusing to permit her people to enter our territory. Gradually, however, the United States began to assume the honorable position of China's one disinterested friend, the only one who had no "axe to grind," no desire to seize her territory.

VIII-32

While the Japanese and Russians were thus facing the main resistance of the Chinese, two other forces, the British and the Americans, attacked at other points less strongly guarded. The experience of the Americans was peculiar. Two companies of them reached the wall of the city near where the Russians were being repelled. As all the neighboring Chinese were joining in that struggle our men were able to dash across the moat and reach the shelter of the wall unobserved. There the huge mass of the structure towered thirty feet above them. But age had crumbled its sheer surface and a few hardy spirits managed to clamber to the summit. Before they were discovered they let down ropes and hoisted their rifles to the top; then they helped their comrades up also. So they swept unopposed into the city.

Meanwhile the Russians had forced their gate for the second time. Then the whole Chinese defense gave way at once. Boxers and royal troops both took to flight; and through a woebegone and confused but unresisting crowd the Europeans poured into the city from every side. The Britons were the first to reach the legations, and found them still unharmed.

For more than two months the foreigners had been besieged within the shelter of their yards and buildings, turning these into fortresses. But there had been no very resolute attack upon them. The royal troops had left them alone, and while noisy crowds of boxers had raged at them and fired many shots, few of these took effect. Eight hundred foreigners and three thousand native Christian Chinese had been besieged. Only sixty-eight were killed. The relieving columns had assumed the brunt of the fighting, drawn off the Chinese troops, and suffered far heavier losses than the besieged legationers.

Meanwhile what had become of the Empress and her court? They had remained in Peking up to the very moment when the foreigners came swarming in over its walls. Then, as the assailants swept into the city from three sides, the Empress and her train fled by the gate in the fourth side, that which pointed to the west. The royal Manchu body guard forced its way through the city streets by firing volleys into the crowds of Chinamen who blocked the way. Soon the courtiers were safe from pursuit, but they did not cease their flight till they had journeyed six hundred miles farther into the interior, and reached the ancient city of Sian-fu, once the capital of the empire in very early days. Here they found peace and safety.

In Peking there was much disorder, and a most disgraceful amount of "looting," considering that the troops had come as the representatives of civilization. Soon, however, order was restored, and the old régime was gradually re-established. The different European governments were most of them really anxious to have China resume the management of her own affairs. As for Japan, she was specially unwilling to have any European authority

permanently established so near to her own shores. The United States also took a leading part in asserting that China must be for the Chinese, and that America could not sanction her conquest. Hence all that was really asked of China was that she should open her eyes, surrender her absurd obstinacy, and accept the modern world as it is.

Thus with the beginning of the twentieth century began the modernization of China. Japan had awakened to the necessity of change more than a generation before; but China had clung fervently to her old ways. The result had been this mad and hopeless Boxer uprising, and the capture of her capital by the foreign nations. From this time onward, though half-heartedly at first, the Chinese tried to study the foreign civilization and learn wherein its superiority lay.

The Empress from her distant retreat was persuaded to entrust full power to two men, Prince Ching, the aged president of her so-called "Grand Council," and Li Hung Chang, who had so successfully conducted the negotiations with Japan after the previous disastrous war. These two shrewd old men took control at the beginning of 1901, and made peace with the foreign nations. They agreed to pay an indemnity amounting to a quarter of a billion dollars; they sent Prince Chun, a younger brother of the Emperor, to Germany to make official apology for the murder of the German consul; they sent another great Manchu noble to apologize to Japan for the similar death of a minor Japanese official. Thus they made China's remorse widely known to all the world—and thus they got the foreigners out of Peking. In September of 1901 the last of the allied troops, the Americans and Japanese, turned the policing of the capital over to the Chinese and departed for their homes. The Chinese held a solemn purification of the city; and then the Empress returned, bringing back in her train the helpless Emperor and all the court. Before they reached there Li Hung Chang, the greatest Chinaman of the nineteenth century, had died, worn out with his labors for an ungrateful country.

Li had been nominally the governor of Chi-li, the chief Chinese province, the state of which Peking is the center. This important office was now given to Yuan Shi-kai, the man who was destined to play the most prominent part in China's sudden conversion into a modern republic. Yuan Shi-kai had previously been governor of the neighboring province of Shantung, and had there proved himself both able and far-seeing. Although fully alive to the necessity of improvements and reforms, he was jealous of the rights of his country and a staunch supporter of the dynasty. The army trained by him in Shantung was for a long time the only effective military force in the empire. It was he who warned the foreigners of their danger at the time of the Boxer uprising; and when the European and American troops hesitated to advance against

PREPARING AGAINST THE BOXERS

(The American Legation at Peking Preparing for Defense)

From a photograph taken during the defense

THE final period of the Empress' rule lasted until her death in 1908. These were years of reaction in China. Li Hung Chang lost most of his influence, and died in 1901; the "Modern Sage," Kang Yuwei, was a fugitive; the Emperor a helpless prisoner. The Empress and her court encouraged opposition to the foreigners and to all their works. The court gazette of Peking told the people, truthfully enough, that the European governments "cast looks of tiger-like voracity on the empire." Pamphlets were widely circulated containing the most bitter and scurrilous attacks upon the Christian religion, which in sarcastic reference to the graspingness of Europeans, is styled in China "the Faith of the Heavenly Pig." A secret society was formed or rather revived, having for its purpose undying opposition to everything European. This society was named in quaint involved Chinese fashon, the "Literary Patriotic Harmonious Fists," or more shortly the Fists, which we have translated into English as the Boxers.

These Boxers soon began to express openly their resentment against the foreigners. When the European governments protested against this dangerous state of affairs, they were met by polite words and repeated assurances that the Boxers would be surpassed. But so threatening became the attitude of the lower class natives of Peking that, in the spring of 1900, the men of the various European legations began consulting together and quietly turned their homes, especially the conveniently situated courtyard of the American legation, into fortresses ready for immediate defense.

VIII-34

Peking, feeling that such a course was hopeless, that the massacre of the whites must be already accomplished, it was Yuan Shi-kai who notified them that the legations were still holding out. Yuan has ever since been regarded as a friend of the foreigners, or at least a convinced advocate of the necessity of a policy of friendliness toward them.

To Yuan Shi-kai and the aged Prince Ching was now entrusted the task of establishing whatever reforms they deemed essential. At heart, however, the aged Empress and all her Manchu nobles were opposed to everything modern; so the reformers had to move most cautiously. In 1902 they issued several edicts, the most notable being that which by permitting marriages between Manchus and Chinese began the breaking down of the barriers of caste. Another edict checked the practice of binding up women's feet and so rendering them incapable of any heavy work.

One notable Chinaman who was summoned to aid in the work of reform was Wu Ting-fang, well known to Americans from having been the Chinese ambassador to the United States during the Boxer outbreak. He had done everything possible to sustain harmonious relations, and had been a most potent aid to China here. Indeed, the United States now took the lead in protecting China, persuading other nations to enter an agreement guaranteeing China against partition. The United States also led the other nations in voluntarily reducing the total of her indemnity claim against China. Ultimately she forgave China almost the whole of this claim, with the result that China developed a most friendly feeling toward America and toward the republican form of government. She sent many of her ablest young men to be educated in our colleges. All this American kindliness raised Wu Ting-fang to high esteem in China, and he was appointed to a commission to study foreign statecraft and arrange commercial treaties with all foreign nations.

Nevertheless, China's foreign relations soon brought her into trouble again. Everybody had guaranteed her territorial integrity; but Russia was so eager for an outlet to the Pacific Ocean from snow-bound Siberia that she found means to break the guarantee in the spirit if not in the letter. She built railroads through Manchuria, and under the plea of policing these she poured troops into the province and took complete possession of it. Meanwhile Yuan Shi-kai had been hard at work training his soldiers throughout Chi-li on European models. These soon reached a high state of efficiency, and as early as 1903 Yuan wanted to launch them against Russia and drive her from Manchuria. The aged and cautious Prince Ching, however, refused to plunge China into another European war.

Finally, as we know, this particular matter was taken out of China's hands by the Japanese, who fought Russia in 1904 and 1905, drove her out of

southern Manchuria, and took into their own hands the control of the railroads. To China it was bitter indeed to watch these two mighty foes battling for her territory and ignoring her altogether. But the insult gave her the last spur she needed, the final teaching that she must accept modern ideas. Moreover, the outcome of the war roused her hope and self-confidence. By Japan's example, she saw that Asiatics really could learn European modes of warfare and even come to excel in them. In 1905 some of Yuan Shi-kai's well-drilled troops were sent into Mongolia. Russia had been planning to seize that vast province; but when, after her Japanese disaster, these new-spirited Chinese garrisoned Mongolia, Russia drew back. So, for the time at least, the ancient home of the celebrated Kublai-Khan remained in China's possession.

Reform took on a new and ever more vigorous impulse. It still, however, met opposition both from the Manchu court and from the more ignorant multitude. When in 1905 the commission for the study of foreign governments was setting out from Peking, a bomb was hurled at the procession and several of the members of the commission were injured. Yet even this opposition, by employing so modern a method of protest as a bomb, showed how far China had awakened from her ancient sleep.

Most notable of the reforms of 1905 was the abolishing of the old system of examinations for appointment to government positions. Examinations were still held, but it was decreed that thereafter they should deal with modern subjects, and should test the candidate's knowledge of such themes as mathematics and geography, rather than his literary acquaintance with the thousand precepts of Confucius. This law has completely revolutionized Chinese schools. Foreign teachers have been summoned to their aid, or Chinese who had been educated abroad. The studies have become frankly scientific instead of religious; and a great central University thoroughly up to date has been established in Peking.

Another change, which one half regrets to chronicle, has been the extending to military leaders a rank and honor equal to that enjoyed by civil officials. For centuries the military art was despised in China; her chief generals were regarded as inferior to even the lower officers of state. As a natural result her armies had been neglected and poorly handled. Now all the young nobles were encouraged to take army positions. A warlike spirit re-arose.

Even more far reaching was the vigorous effort to wipe out the opium habit. This dreadful scourge had been spreading its tentacles over China in ever more deadly grip for over a century. Laws were now passed seeking to reduce the use of the drug by degrees and ultimately to abolish it altogether. China had been growing vast quantities of opium in her own fields, and England had been sending equally vast amounts into the country from her

EUROPE MAKES WAR ON CHINA

(The Allied Fleets of Europe Bombard and Capture the Taku Forts)

From a painting by the German artist, Alex. Kircher

IN June, 1900, the Boxers broke into open war against the foreigners, and the Chinese government soon became involved in the struggle. Ships and soldiers from each of the European powers and also from our own country and Japan began to gather off the port of Taku, at the mouth of the river up which Peking lies. The foreign officials in Peking sent peremptory word to the commanders of these ships that troops must be marched to Peking at once to prevent a massacre of all foreigners there. So a column made up of soldiers from every nation was hastily sent forward. It was attacked upon the way by hordes of Boxers, and when these were repulsed, regular Chinese troops joined them and aided the attack. At the same times Chinese forts at Taku began firing at the ships of the foreigners.

These shots from the Taku forts were few and harmless, and the various commanders of the different nations held an anxious consultation as to whether the attack should be treated seriously as an act of war by the Chinese government. The conference finally agreed to capture the forts, though the American commander opposed this decision and refused to take part in thus beginning war without negotiations. The remainder of the fleet united in bombarding the forts, and soon reduced them to ruin. The river to Peking was, however, navigable for only a short distance. Hence the bombardment of the forts only rendered more dangerous the position of all the foreigners shut up in Peking; for Europe had now declared war upon China.

VIII-35

opium fields in India. When China proved herself in earnest by actually reducing her own opium growth, England agreed to meet her half way and began reducing the Indian importation. Already the use of the drug has been reduced one-half; and China looks forward hopefully to a time when she may be able to stamp it out altogether.

In 1908 the most serious practical bar to Chinese progress disappeared. The aged Empress Tsi-hssi died. She had always been Manchu at heart; she had fought every modern innovation all she dared; she had deprived the Emperor of power the moment he lent his aid to reform. Even in her death she struck her last blow at the cause she dreaded, by carrying off with her the Emperor, Kwang-su. We are asked to believe that his death, which occurred just before hers, was natural; but if so it was a most savage coincidence, and a whisper has spread through the world that when Tsi-hssi felt her end approaching she was determined not to leave Kwang-su in power as a friend of reform; hence she sent him her imperial permission to choose the manner of his death, and he chose suicide.

At all events Tsi-hssi left the throne to a new emperor, the last of the long Manchu line. She selected for the throne a child of the royal race, a three-year-old baby named Pu-yi. This royal Emperor Pu-yi was the son of Kwang-su's younger brother, Prince Chun, the same who had visited Europe with China's apologies after the Boxer outbreak. Prince Chun was still a youth, only twenty-six; but he was made regent of the empire to govern for his baby son. Having thus "put her house in order" Tsi-hssi died. Beginning her remarkable career as a slave girl, she had risen to be chief Empress and then the sole and absolute ruler over 400,000,000 people; and she had retained her power for forty years through all the tumults and upheaval that had shaken China to its foundation.

Prince Chun, the new regent, was nominally a friend of reform, or at least so he hastened to assure the European powers. Almost his first act, however, was to dismiss Yuan Shi-kai from his councils. Rumor says he had pledged himself to his dying brother to do this; for Kwang-su had hated the great reformer bitterly. Prince Chun now blamed Yuan Shi-kai for having let foreigners build railroads through the country. These were being hurried forward everywhere; and Chun declared they must on their completion become government property. This startled European capitalists who had begun to pour their money freely into China, and the golden flow was stopped.

Meanwhile the preparations, long since begun, for establishing some form of representative government in China, were being carried on. Local councils were established in each province in 1910. These were not really elected by the people, yet they felt themselves to be the people's voice; and headed by the

THE FALL OF COLONEL LISCUM

(The Foreign Troops for Peking are Driven Back to Tien-tsin)

From a painting in 1901 by the American artist, John Cassel

WHILE the European fleet was thus making itself secure at the mouth of the Peking river, the troops who had been sent forward to reach Peking itself, found themselves in sore straits. The journey is about one hundred miles, and there were some two thousand of the soldiers. They started by railroad, but soon found the rails torn up. Then, as they fought their way onward afoot, they were assailed at every step by hordes of Boxers. Their ammunition began to give out; advance became impossible, and they fell back to the strong city of Tien-tsin, some thirty miles from the coast. Here they were met by reinforcements from the fleet.

For nearly a month there was confused and desperate fighting around Tien-tsin. The Chinese were strongly entrenched in one part of the city; the allied troops held the other part. The foreigners fought bravely, the men of each nation striving to outdo the others. All, however, were much handicapped by lack of knowledge of one another's languages, so that there was a lack of coöperation and a constant confusion of commands. The Americans, though few in number, distinguished themselves by their valor. Their leader, Colonel Liscum, was killed while leading his men in the final assault, by which the Chinese were driven from the city.

During all this fighting, most of the Chinese were regular soldiers of the Empire. Moreover, these soldiers had improved greatly since the Japanese war. Their shooting was steady, their aim good, and their valor high. The victory at Tien-tsin was only achieved at a heavy cost of lives upon both sides.

VIII-36

remarkable document in which little Pu-yi blamed himself for everything that had gone wrong and promised hereafter to be wholly guided by his people's wishes.

By this time, however, the fast spreading revolution had involved all southern China. At first the troops of Yuan had been successful in seizing Nanking, the ancient Chinese capital, and some other revolting cities. But they were themselves in more or less sympathy with the revolt. At Wuchang they were met by envoys from the rebels and persuaded to withdraw peacefully. As other regiments hurried from Peking toward this center of revolt, they were similarly turned aside. Apparently the combat was to be merely one of courtesy. On November 8th, Canton, the metropolis of the far south, was the first city to take the decisive step of declaring itself a republic. Other cities followed. Shanghai, the great commercial metropolis of central China, joined the seceders and was chosen as their temporary capital. Then as an assertion of their complete break from the Manchus and the re-establishment of native Chinese rule, the republicans attacked Nanking, the ancient Chinese capital, which was held by the troops from Peking.

At Nanking there was some real fighting, about all that the revolution saw; but the Peking troops soon retreated, and Nanking was triumphantly entered by the republicans (November 29th), and declared to be their capital. They elected a temporary president, Dr. Sun Yat Sen, a scholar educated in America and a chief organizer of the movement. For minister of foreign affairs they selected our old friend the Ambassador to America, Wu Ting-fang, who had been active throughout the revolt. For a moment it really seemed as if China would break into two countries, a constitutional kingdom under Manchu sovereigns in the north, and a republic in the south.

All Chinamen, however, felt that such a division would be a national disaster. Earnest efforts were made by the two opposing governments to come to some form of compromise. The Peking government even went so far as to offer to submit the whole matter to a national vote, the Manchus promising to abdicate if the vote was against them. But nothing short of republicanism would now satisfy the south. Many people of the north also desired a republic, and Yuan Shi-kai with his loyalty to the ancient kings began to be looked on as the only prop of their falling fortunes, the only obstacle to a full republic. In January of 1912 three successive bombs were hurled at Yuan in the Peking streets.

Prince Chun must have seen that further struggle was useless. In February he yielded and announced the abdication of little Pu-yi and the complete surrender of the Manchu throne. In return he and his son have been given possession of several palaces and much treasure, so that they, who once were

kings, are still great nobles. At the same time as this abdication, Sun Yat sen, the president of the south, resigned also, withdrawing in favor of Yuan Shi-kai. This great leader's course had won him the seeming confidence of all parties, and he was now universally named as provisional president of the new republic. Its existence was thus established on February 15, 1912.

The difficulties of the new government were, however, manifold. It rejected as its banner the ancient dragon flag of military power, and substituted a new flag of five stripes, typifying the union of the five races of the empire. A crimson stripe stands for the Mongols, a yellow one for the Chinese, a red one for the Manchus, and then blue for the Mahometans of the south, and black for the Thibetans of the far west. But this union scarce extends beyond the flag. Manchuria is little likely to be freed from the grip of Russia and Japan. Mongolia has long been discontented with Chinese rule, and some of its cities had already during the tumults of 1911 declared their independence. When in the next year troops were sent there to re-establish China's authority, Russia, which has long had an eye on Mongolia, interfered and prevented the use of force. Even Thibet showed a leaning toward independence, in which she has been upheld by England. So that the chances of the Chinese republican flag ever floating over the full extent of the ancient empire are very small.

Internally, too, the new government has had to face many difficulties. The patriots of the south were determined that Nanking should be the capital, and they only yielded in favor of Peking temporarily and unwillingly. The Nanking assembly was invited to come bodily to Peking and unite with the provisional assembly there until a regular government could be elected. This they finally agreed to do. But they still looked to Sun Yat Sen as their true leader. Only by going to Peking himself and patriotically insisting on every one's supporting Yuan Shi-kai did Sun Yat Sen finally draw his devoted followers into line.

In 1912 a Constitution was drawn up. In 1913 elections under this were held. To us of America it seems a somewhat disappointing document. It restricts suffrage by property qualifications and also by educational ones, so that probably not one person in a hundred in China, scarcely one man in twenty of adult age, can vote. Nevertheless the voters do represent the thought and energy and intelligence of the country. Even these voters, however, do not directly choose their president. He is elected, as in France, by the members of the national assembly. These gathered in Peking in October, 1913, and elected as the first regular president of the Chinese Republic, Yuan Shi-kai. His long labors well deserved this crowning honor.

FORCING THE ENTRANCE OF THE PEI-HO IN 1860

CHRONOLOGY OF CHINA

B.C. 2637 to 2197—Semi-Mythical Period. 2197—The Hia dynasty began. 1122—The Chow dynasty began (authentic history). 551—Confucius was born. 479—Confucius died. 255—The Tsin dynasty began. 220—The Great Wall was begun and completed in five years; destruction of Chinese literature. 202—The Han dynasty began.

A.D. 220—Division of the country into the Three Kingdoms. 265—The Later Tsin dynasty began. 618—The Tang dynasty began, with the wise Emperor Li-yuen, who was succeeded by the great Tai-tsung; during the seventh century important canals were built and the Han-lin college founded; near the end of the ninth century the fashion of binding the feet of female children came into practice. 907—End of the Tang dynasty, which was followed by five small dynasties; during these years printing was practised by the Chinese, and the Tartars gained a foothold in North China. 960—The Sung dynasty began, with Tai-tsu; encroachments of the Tartars. 1155–1227—Remarkable career of Genghis Khan. 1260—The Mongol or Yuen dynasty began, with Kublai Khan as emperor; construction of the Great Canal; first visit of Europeans. 1368—The Ming dynasty began, with reign of Hong-wou or Tai-tsu; Peking made a principality, and capital transferred to Nanking; Emperor Yung-lo removed it back to Peking. 1516—Chinese ports first visited by European ships; small settlement of Portuguese about A.D. 1550. 1570—Unwelcome arrival of two Spanish missionaries. 1571—Accession of Wan-

lieh, originator of the "Red Book;" irruptions of the Manchus, culminating in their declaration of war against the empire. **1625**—Settlement of the Dutch at Formosa. **1637**—First English ships arrived at Macao.

1644—The Manchu or present Tartar dynasty began, with Shun-chi emperor. **1655**—Russia attempted to establish commercial relations with China; war over disputed Siberian territory followed; two Christian churches built in Peking. **1661**—Kang-hi became emperor. **1692**—Kang-hi decreed free exercise of the Christian religion; the grateful Jesuit Verbiest taught the Chinese the art of making cannon, and corrected the calendar. **1699**—Tea trade opened with England. **1722**—Kang-hi died, after having prepared two great dictionaries and the "Sacred Edict," and compelled the Mongols to remove to the territory beyond the Great Wall. **1728**—A Russian college was established at Peking. **1735**—Yung-ching, Kang-hi's successor, who banished the Jesuits, died and was succeeded by his son, Kien-Lung; during his reign conquests were made in Western Tartary and Thibet was acquired. **1770**—Raid of the Miau-tsz. **1771**—By dissolution of the *hongs*, Chinese merchants became free to trade with Europeans. **1793**—A British embassy marked the first direct intercourse between the courts of Great Britain and China. **1795**—Kia-king became emperor, and his dissolute rule gave rise to the Triad Societies, working against the government; the Catholics were persecuted and robbers infested the land. **1821**—Tau-Kwang succeeded his father; uprisings ensued among the Tartars and the Miau-tsz. **1834**—The traffic in opium with England was forbidden and smuggling began. **1835**—The Miau-tsz war ended.

1839—The Chinese destroy all the opium in British warehouses at Canton; the English seize Hong-kong. **1840**—The British fleet captured Ting-hai and Macao and advanced against Peking; the emperor offered peace. **1841**—Edict issued that all the British ships and people should be destroyed; capture of the Bogue forts by the English; Canton surrenders to them (May); Amoy taken (August); Chu-san, Chin-hai and Ningpo yielded (October). **1842**—British fleet entered the Yang-tse-kiang River and attacked Chin-kiang in July, thence proceeded to Nanking; a treaty granted England cash indemnities, the island of Hong-kong, the opening of the ports of Canton, Amoy, Fu-chau, Shanghai and Ningpo, and the release of all prisoners; the "Opium War" ended. **1844**—The United States minister effected ratification of the treaty of Wang-hai. **1846**—British war vessels captured the Bogue forts; the Manchu army was routed and the city of Kashgar captured by insurgents; troubles thickened around the emperor. **1850**—Hieng-fung succeeded Tau-kwang; famine and pestilence devastated the land; beginning of the Taiping rebellion. **1853**—The entire Manchu garrison at Nanking was slaughtered. **1857**—Serious trou-

bles with England resulted in the bombardment of Canton by the British and French. 1858—The allies advance on Peking; stopped by treaty of Tientsin. 1859—Allied ships driven back from the Pei-ho River. 1860—The Pei-ho forts destroyed by the allies and Peking surrendered; Ningpo and Peking recaptured from the rebels by the imperialists; cessions of the Chinese to Russia. 1861—Tungche became emperor. 1862—General Ward was killed after many victorious fights with the insurgents. 1863—Captain Charles Gordon took command of the imperialist forces. 1864—Nanking taken from the rebels. 1873—Trouble between the Annamese and the French in the Red River delta. 1874—France secured a nominal protectorate over Annam.

1875—Kwang-su became emperor, under regency of the empress dowager. 1882—A French fleet arrived in the China Sea. 1884—The French commander killed near Hanoi; soldiers sent into Annam: China renounced her claims to Annam by the Fournier treaty, and allowed trade along the frontiers; new troubles arose. 1885—The preliminaries of peace were arranged. 1887—More satisfactory terms were secured by France; Kwang-su became ruler in fact; revolt of natives against the improvements instigated by foreigners; persecution of missionaries and their converts. 1891—Alarming riots along the Yang-tse-kiang; attack on foreigners at Wahu, Nanking, Wusueh and other towns; rebellion in Eastern Mongolia. 1894—War between China and Japan. 1895—Conclusion of the war; destruction of missionary property at Ching-tu; massacre of Protestants at Fuh-kien. 1897—Russia acquired Port Arthur and Talien, with right to build railways; the Boxer uprising began in Shan-tung; territorial concessions were made to European countries. 1899—June 9, the empress dowager commanded by the Powers to suppress the Boxers.

1900—June 12, the Japanese chancellor of legation murdered at Peking; all foreigners besieged; June 17, the Taku forts captured by the allies; June 20, Baron von Ketteler, the German minister, assassinated; June 21, Tientsin shelled by allied warships; July 13–14, Tientsin captured; August 4, a force started for Peking to relieve the legationers; August 14, capture of Peking; negotiations for peace; General Chaffee given full power to act for the United States government.

1901—January 12, Li Hung Chang and Prince Ching signed the preliminary note of demand; February, the Powers agreed to acquire no territory in China without international consent, and several Boxer leaders were executed in Peking; May, demand of the Powers for indemnity agreed to by China; September 4, official apology of China to Germany for the murder of Baron von Ketteler; September 17, Peking restored to the Chinese; November 7, death of Li Hung Chang. 1902—Return of the Chinese court to Peking; England and Japan formed an alliance to prevent the partition of China and to secure

the policy of the "open door" for other Powers; revolt in South China; foreign governments accept the proposal of the United States to scale down their indemnity demands; the Chinese Minister Wu Ting-fang recalled. 1903—Renewed Boxer outbreaks in the distant provinces, easily suppressed. 1905—Ancient system of education overturned; modern schools established. 1906—Opium trade partly suppressed; trouble with France in Tonquin, and England in Thibet. 1908—Death of the Empress Tsi-hssi, and the Emperor Kwang-su; installation of Pu-yi. 1909—Establishment of the modern university at Peking. 1910—Beginnings of representative government, establishment of councils in each province and of a National Senate; widespread demands for a constitution. 1911—Cabinet government established under Prince Ching as prime minister (May); revolt begins at Wuchang (Oct.), Yuan Shi-kai made dictator summons a National Assembly; Canton declares itself a republic (Nov.), all southern China joins the republican movement, Nanking stormed and made the capital; (Dec.) Sun Yat Sen made provisional president of the Republic. 1912—Agreement reached between north and south China; the Manchu royal family abdicates; Yuan Shi-kai made temporary president of reunited China (Feb. 15); Peking made the center of government; Russia upholds Mongolia in revolt. 1913—Elections held under the new government; the assembly elects Yuan Shi-kai the first regular president of the Chinese republic (Oct. 6); the United States is the first country to recognize and welcome him. He dissolves his parliament.

RULERS OF CHINA

Semi-Mythical Period begins with Hoang-ti 2637 B.C.; closes with Yu, the ninth Emperor, 2197 B.C.

The HIA Dynasty begins with Yu, 2197 B.C.; closes with Kia, the sixteenth Emperor, 1776 B.C.

The CHANG begins with Ching Tang, 1776 B.C.; closes with Chou-sin, twenty-eighth Emperor, 1122 B.C.

The CHOW begins with Wou Wang, 1122 B.C.; closes with Nan Wang, thirty-fourth Emperor, 255 B.C.

The TSIN begins with Chow Siang, 255 B.C., closes with Tsoupa Wang, the seventh Emperor, 202 B.C.

The HAN begins with Kaotsou, 202 B.C.; closes with Hien-ti, the twenty-sixth Emperor, A.D. 220.

Period of the Three Kingdoms, during which various minor princes ruled, lasted from 220 to 265.

The Later TSIN begins with Vou-ti, 265, and closes with Kung-ti, the fifteenth Emperor, 420.

The SONG begins with Vou-ti, 420, and closes with Chun-ti, the seventh Emperor, 479.

The Tsi begins with Kao-ti, 479, and closes with Ho-ti, the fifth Emperor, 502.

The Leang begins with Vou-ti, 502, and closes with King-ti, the fourth Emperor, 556.

The Chin begins with Vou-ti, 556, and closes with Suen-ti, the fourth Emperor, 580.

The Soui begins with Wen-ti, 580, and closes with Kung-ti, the fourth Emperor, 618.

The Tang begins with Li-Yuen, 618, and closes with Chao Hiuenti, the twentieth Emperor, 907.

Five Small Dynasties follow, the Later Leangs (907-923); the Later Tangs (923-936); the Later Tsin (936-947); the Later Han (947-951); the Later Chow (951-960).

The Sung begins with Tai-tsu, 960, and closes with Chuliang, the twenty-second Emperor, 1161.

The Kin dynasty began to rule in Northern China 1115, concurrently with the Sung in Southern, and closes with Gaitsong in 1234.

The Mongol, or Yuen, begins with Chi-tsu (Kublai Khan), 1260, and closes with Shun-tsung, the eighth Emperor, 1368.

The Ming begins with Hongwou, or Tai-tsu, 1368, and closes with Hwai-tsung, the eighteenth Emperor, 1644.

The Manchu or Tai-tsing.

Shun-chi, 1644.
Kang-hi, 1661.
Yung-ching, 1722.
Kien-lung, 1735.
Kia-king, 1796.
Tau-kwang, 1821.
Hieng-fung, 1850.
Tungche, 1861.
Kwang-su, 1875.
Pu-yi, 1908.

Republic established, 1912.

PRONOUNCING VOCABULARY FOR CHINA

[As the Chinese have no alphabet of letters like ours, there is no fixed way for spelling Chinese names. Indeed, all our spellings of them are mere attempts to suggest the Chinese sounds as best we can. For that reason, a further guide to their pronunciation seems hardly necessary. Every syllable has equal value, and all that is necessary is to pronounce it just as spelt. Note, however, that the letter i is sounded ē. A few of the names may present special difficulties.]

Genghis Khan (jăn′ghēs-kahn)
Kublai Khan (koo′blā-kahn)
Kung (koong)
Li Hung Chang (lē hung chăng)
Mukden (mook′dĕn)
Seoul (sowl)
Shanghai (shăng-hah′ĭ)
Thibet (tĭb′ĕt)
Tsi-hssi (tsē-hsē)
Verbiest (fār-bēst′)
Waldersee (vahl′dĕr-sē)
Wei-hai wei (wā-hī-wā)
Yang-tse-kiang (yăngt-sē-kē′ang)

THE ALLIES' ADVANCE ON PEKING

THE EMPEROR NINTOKU IN HIS RETIREMENT

MODERN NATIONS—JAPAN

Chapter CXLVIII

ANCIENT JAPAN

[*Authorities:* Sir E. J. Reed, "Japan"; Dixon, "Land of the Morning"; Murray, "Story of Japan"; Van Bergen, "History of Japan"; Vladimir, "China-Japan War"; Brinkley, "Japan, Its History, Arts and Literature"; Griffis, "The Mikado's Empire"; Rein, "Japan," "Industries of Japan"; Mounsey, "The Satsuma Rebellion"; Dening, "Life of Hideyoshi"; Sir Edwin Arnold, "Japonica"; Aston, "Chronicles of Japan"; Hubbard, "The United States in the Far East."]

WHEN Marco Polo, the celebrated traveller through China, returned to Europe, in 1295, he declared that among other lands he had visited an island kingdom called Zipangu. The people, he said, were highly civilized and very courteous, and their land was rich with gold and spices. This was the first that Europe had ever heard of Japan, whose present name among us is but a corruption of Zipangu, which in turn seems but Marco Polo's imperfect pronunciation of the Chinese form of the native name, *Dai Nippon*—"Great Land of the Rising Sun."

This Land of the Rising Sun is to-day the most important Power of Asia. Its chain of islands, from end to end, contains only about as much land as our own New England with New York and Pennsylvania added. But this territory supports a population of 44,000,000, nearly two-thirds that of the entire United States.

The oldest written history which the Japanese have of themselves dates from the beginning of the seventh century. It deals with gods and goddesses at the beginning, and tells how Kyushu, the most southern of

their islands, was settled by children of the Sun Goddess. Descending from the plains of Heaven, they wandered toward their mother in the golden East. Probably, when translated into plain prose, this means that some wandering Asian tribe similar to the Chinese crossed into the island from Corea.

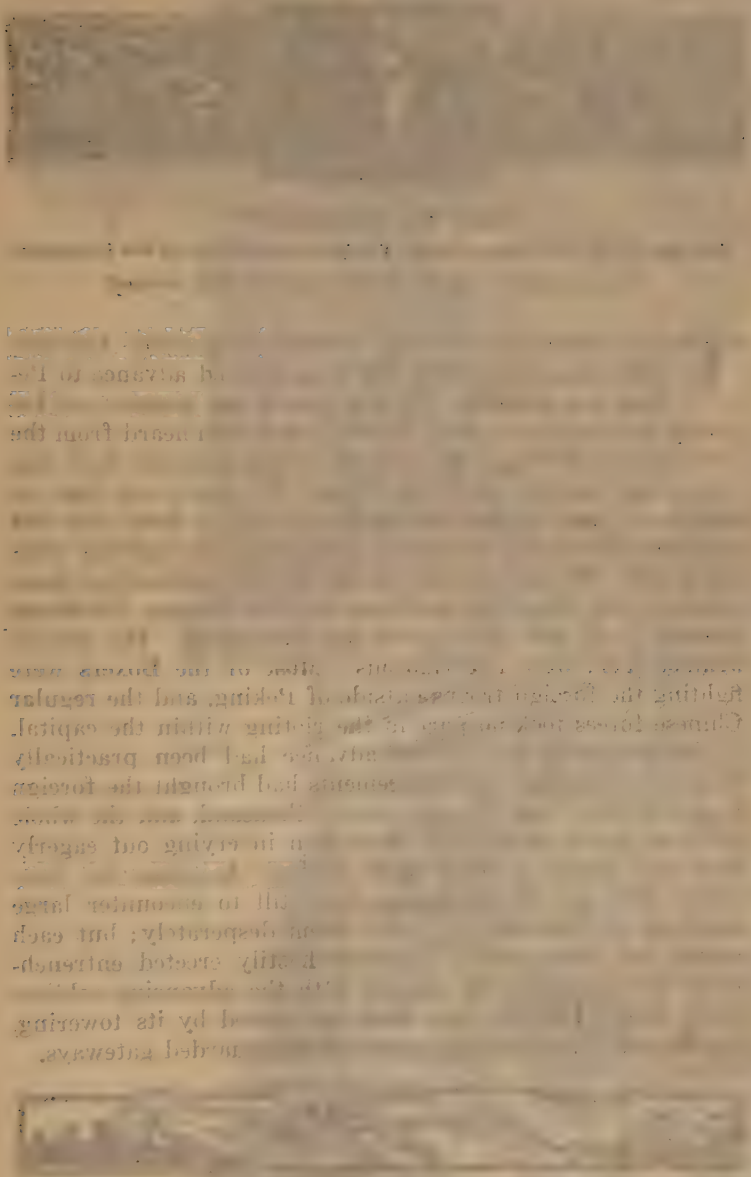
There is no question that the Japanese are of the same general stock as the Chinese, though apparently with a mingling of other blood, especially Malay. Long before their coming into Dai Nippon it had been occupied by at least two earlier races, one a set of savages who dwelt in pits, the other stronger and yet wilder, the Ainos, a strange, dirty, hairy people, lords of the land till the Japanese came. These Ainos still survive in out of the way corners; but, though still very hairy, they have grown so gentle and peaceful that one hesitates to identify them with the fierce savages of the ancient legends. Only once in every year do they return to their old-time ferocity. They have a religious ceremony in which they worship a tame bear and end by shooting him with yells and fury. They do not know why they do this; but say that it is a custom of their remotest ancestors, handed down through a thousand generations.

The chieftain who led the Japanese out of their first settling place in Kyushu to the conquest of the northern islands is called Jimmu Tenno, and he thus ranks as the founder of the Japanese Empire. The date of this event is set by the native historians at 660 B.C.; but their early reckoning of time is very vague and not at all to be trusted.

Jimmu led his people through Kyushu along the shores of the "Inland Seas," the beautiful waters which lie winding among the islands, and around whose borders centres most of the early story of Japan. After crossing the Shimonoseki strait, his tribe—for it was then no more than a tribe—spent seven years tilling and harvesting, and building ships. At last they embarked in their vessels and sailed eastward through the Inland Seas till, at the farther end, they came to where Osaka now lies. Here they found a people similar to themselves, and fought and conquered them. They met the pit-dwellers, and Jimmu, having prepared a banquet, served it to these savages in one of their own pits. His men waited on them, and at a sudden signal slew them all.

Having thus established his rule over the southern and more fertile end of the main island, Jimmu built himself a palace in the Yamato peninsula, reigned there, and died.

The next extender of the empire was Prince Yamato-dake, who is said to have lived about the first century of our era. He fought against the savage Ainos in the east, and subdued them. One legend tells that, as he crossed the bay of Tokio with his wife, Oto-Tachibana, a storm arose, and would have overwhelmed them, but Oto-Tachibana threw out the mats that carpeted the boat, then stepped out and sat upon them, crying to the Prince that he must



"ON TO PEKING!"

(Advance of the Victorious Foreign Troops to the Rescue of the Legations)

From a drawing by the German artist, Otto Gerlach

THE moment the Chinese forces beleaguering Tien-tsin had been swept away, the long delayed advance to Peking was resumed. By this time it was August, and for nearly two months no word whatever had been heard from the foreigners in Peking. All over the civilized world there was widespread anxiety as to their fate. We know now that attacks were made on them in the streets early in June, and that members of both the German and the Japanese embassy were murdered. The bulk of the foreigners then entrenched themselves in the legations, gathered the few Chinese Christians around them, and there defended themselves. The attacks against them were not vigorous. Most of the Boxers were fighting the foreign troops outside of Peking, and the regular Chinese forces took no part in the rioting within the capital.

Resistance to the foreign advance had been practically broken at Tien-tsin. Reinforcements had brought the foreign troops up to a total of over twenty thousand, and the whole civilized world joined with these men in crying out eagerly that they should march "on to Peking" to rescue the legations. The marching columns had still to encounter large numbers of Chinese who fought them desperately; but each attack was swept aside, and each hastily erected entrenchment was stormed. On August 14th the advancing soldiers stood before Peking, their pathway barred by its towering, massive walls and strongly fortified and guarded gateways.

VIII-37

go on and finish his work. Instantly the waves were hushed; the gods of the waters accepted the sacrifice of the princess. She was drowned; Yamato-dake was spared. On his triumphant homeward march from his conquests, however, the Prince died of fever and exhaustion. As his father still survived, Yamato-dake was never Emperor, but he is the favorite hero of the early legends.

We come now to the first event which, though overlaid with romance, has a fairly clear historic basis. Somewhere about the year 270 A.D. the Japanese invaded Corea. A dream declared to the Empress Jingo that there was a land to the westward of them, and that they were to conquer it.

When she prophesied this to her husband, he laughed and said: "Look out upon the open waters! Is there any land there? A lying god deceived you." Then the god was angry and struck the Emperor dead in his seat.

The Empress concealed his death, for she was to have a child, and she wanted her offspring to succeed to the throne. She dared not, however, disobey the god. Her ambition was roused, and gathering all the ships of the empire, she sailed westward and landed in Corea. Little difficulty was found in overcoming the three kingdoms into which Corea was then divided. Its chiefs were totally unprepared for this sudden invasion from an unknown land, and they consented to pay tribute to the Japanese.

On her return, the victorious Empress admitted the death of the Emperor, and proclaimed her son as his successor. There were other older sons of the dead ruler who had a better claim, but so great had become the glory and success of the Empress that none dared oppose her. So the Japanese say that the babe Ojin was emperor before his birth; and they worship him as a war-god, since even before birth he inspired his mother to the conquest of Corea.

The intercourse with Corea marks a distinct era for Japan. The tributary state, or rather its neighbor, China, was far in advance of Japan, and many new arts, though with Oriental slowness, came to the knowledge of the islanders. About the year 285 there arrived with the annual tribute a scholar, who brought Chinese books and taught the magic use of written records. The Emperor Ojin's own son became the pupil of the Corean sage.

It is of the Prince thus educated that the pretty story is told that after he became the Emperor Nintoku, he stood one day upon the hills overlooking his capital, and inquired of his followers why he saw no smoke rising from the houses. He was answered that the people were too heavily taxed to afford fuel. Nintoku fell into solemn musing, and when he saw other evidences of his people's poverty, he suddenly issued an imperial command, that no taxes whatever should be collected for the space of three years.

Instantly the land began to prosper. But alas for the poor Emperor himself! He had no hoard of treasure laid by, and soon he was penniless. His

royal palace (not a very elaborate structure in those days) grew sadly in need of repair, his imperial robes began to hang in tatters. His people came to him with presents; but he clung firmly to the letter of his command, and refused to accept them. The very men who had before grumbled under their burdens now approached Nintoku in tears to beseech him to accept from them the very necessities of life. Still he refused, and a touch of humor lightens the tale with suggestions of his lack of cleansing materials and of his unshorn beard. At last the three years ended; the land had become one of smiling plenty; the peasants flocked eagerly to Nintoku with their wealth; and he, climbing once more to the summit of the hills, beheld with proud joy the smoke that curled heavenward from every chimney.

With the introduction of writing from Corea, histories began to be compiled. None of these earliest ones have survived, but their value becomes at once evident in the way impossible legends disappear thereafter from the story of the land.

Slowly also a religion crossed from the mainland. Through all the earlier period the faith of the Japanese seems to have been Shintoism, whose principal deity is Amaterasu, the Sun Goddess, the great ancestress of their race. Shintoism, which still exists, seems to be merely the deifying of great men and ancestors. It has no priestcraft, no idol-worship, no code of laws even, to teach ethics or morality. "The Japanese," say its teachers, "do not, like foreign devils, need laws to make them good. They are naturally good, and need only follow their own hearts."

In 552 a Corean ambassador brought with him an image of Buddha, and the sacred books of Buddhism. The new faith spread slowly at first, but it was taken up vigorously toward the close of the sixth century. The court divided into two hostile parties, for and against the new religion, and it finally triumphed through the wisdom of the Crown Prince Umaydo, the real ruler during the reign of his aunt, the Empress Suiko. Umaydo, or to give him the religious title by which he is best known, Shotoku, is regarded as the true founder of Buddhism in Japan. He took pains to learn the faith thoroughly, taught its correct doctrines to the court, and established it as the state religion. Temples to Buddha and idols of the gods were erected everywhere.

Great reverence was felt for Chinese wisdom and culture; and indeed with reason, for from China came not only the knowledge we have seen, but much beside. Her system of education was introduced, the growth of the silkworm and the art of weaving silk was learned from the same teacher. So also were geography, astronomy, and medicine, though only in their most rudimentary development.

Through this period the story of Japan is but the story of four great families

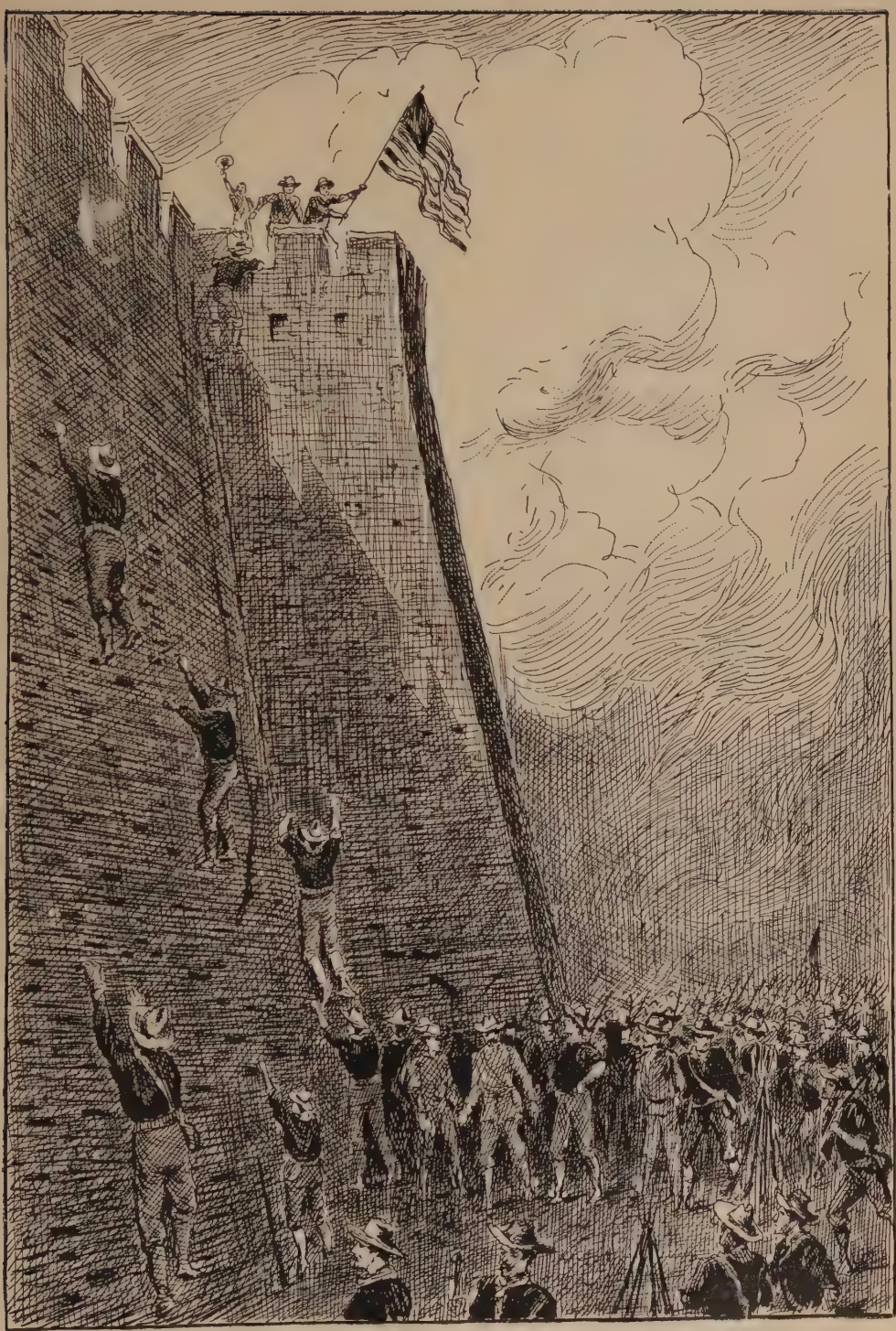
THE STORMING OF PEKING

(American Troops Climbing the Crumbling Walls of the Ancient City)

From a sketch made by one of the American soldiers

IN 1860 the English had stormed Peking with but feeble resistance; but the Chinese of 1900 had learned modern warfare. Nevertheless, the honorable rivalry which had existed among the troops of all the nations as they fought side by side in this campaign against China, showed at its strongest in the eager effort of each set of soldiers to be the first to assail the walls of Peking.

The commanders agreed to wait until daylight on August 15th, and then storm the city on all sides at once. This was done, the attack being begun almost independently from every direction by each force that reached the walls. Probably the first to gain actual entrance were the Russians, who, indeed, had forced their way into the outer city the evening before, but were driven out again with heavy loss. Now they recommenced their attack upon the southern gate, and forced an entrance there. The Americans meanwhile approached the blank wall towering far above their heads. Finding it full of cracks and crevices some of the most venturous spirits scaled its face and then hurriedly aided their comrades up by means of ropes. Thus there were enough of them at the summit to resist attack, before the Chinese saw them. Thus from every direction the allies poured into the city and fought their way through wildly tumultuous crowds to the legations. All of these were saved. They had lost only about sixty of their defenders during the months of siege, while the relieving troops had lost many hundreds, and of the Chinese themselves uncounted thousands had been slain.



VIII-38

of the aristocracy, and their struggles for power. The imperial race of Jimmu seem to have sunk into a state of feeble incompetence. They became mere puppet emperors, not to be overthrown, because of the intense veneration of the people, but bullied hither and thither by the aristocracy who ruled in their name. Each poor emperor was assured that it was beneath his sublime dignity to work or even to think. So sacred was he that he was shut out from the view of the common folk, lest his glorious presence overwhelm them; and so miserable became this state of exalted loneliness, that many an emperor resigned his rank and withdrew to a monastery to escape. Indeed, the emperors were mostly children, and as each grew to years of discretion, the aristocracy rather encouraged his abdication, so as to keep the power more securely to themselves. Sometimes there were half a dozen of these self-deposed emperors living at once, in the various Buddhist monasteries.

First of the great families who secured the real control of the land were the Fujiwara, who became hereditary prime ministers, and by the wealth they accumulated and the cunning of their system managed to retain their power for nearly four centuries. The wives of the emperors were taken regularly from their ranks.

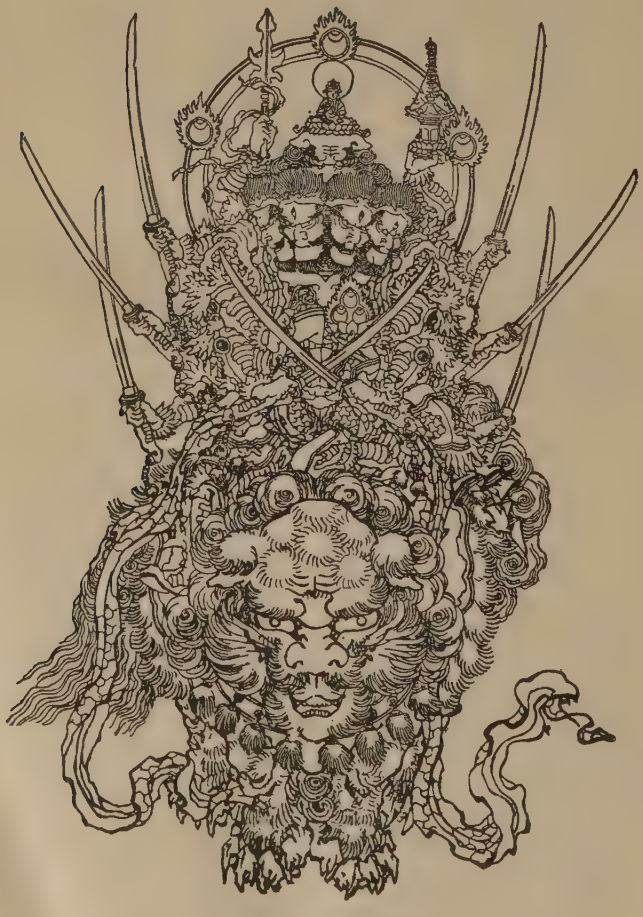
They were never, however, a warlike race, and by degrees a regular military class rose in the eastern provinces, where there was always fighting against the Ainos. Amid this military class the Taira family won its way to eminence, and there was civil war, first between the clans of Taira and Fujiwara, then between those of Taira and Minamoto. For over a century the land was deluged with blood; and the struggles did not finally cease until 1188, when Yoshitsuné, the great hero of the Minamoto, pursued the fleeing fleet of the Taira, caught up with it in the Shimonoseki Strait, and destroyed it in the greatest naval battle of Japanese history. Five hundred junks, we are told, fought upon the vanquished side, seven hundred on the victorious. It was a hand-to-hand combat with arrows, swords, and spears; and scarce a remnant of the Taira succeeded in escaping, to hide forever in the mountains of the southern island, Kyushu.

Yoshitsuné was only a younger brother of Yoritomo, the head of his house. Yoritomo had fought many battles against his foes, but now his younger brother's fame seemed likely to eclipse his own, and he grew so jealous that poor Yoshitsuné had to flee, and was betrayed and slain by one who sought to curry favor with his brother. Yoritomo killed the murderer, but profited by his act to assume the whole authority of the empire.

He erected a puppet emperor or "Mikado" of the sacred royal race, and gave him for his residence the ancient and beautiful capital of Kioto. Then Yoritomo had himself created "Shogun" or general-in-chief, with complete control of military affairs. He fixed his headquarters not at Kioto, but at Kamakura, a city

which he himself founded during his rebellion. Its site, not far from the present Japanese metropolis Tokio, was among the eastern or what were then the frontier provinces, where the Minamotos' chief military support lay.

Thus began the double system which lasted in Japan down to the middle of the nineteenth century. A mikado reigned at Kioto; and a shogun, nominally dependent on the sacred mikado, but generally controlling him, had his seat in the eastern provinces. Yoritomo was a great law-giver; and since his dual system freed his country from its long civil wars, he is remembered with affection as one of the chief benefactors of Japan.



THE JAPANESE WAR GOD

THE HOJOS HONORING A PUPPET EMPEROR

Chapter CXLIX

JAPAN IN THE MIDDLE AGES

IT was unfortunate for Japan that the great organizer, Yoritomo, died before his sons were old enough to wield his power successfully. There were plots, counterplots, and secret murders, until all his direct descendants were slain, and a child of the Fujiwara family was made shogun. Thus this second rank in the empire fell into the same contemptible decadence as that of the mikado. The shoguns were mere puppets ruled by the members of their court, among whom the Hojo family became the leaders.

It was during their ascendancy that the great Tartar Emperor of China, Kublai Khan, endeavored to conquer Japan. He thought at first that a mere command to the Japanese to surrender would be sufficient; but his envoys were received with scorn and defiance. He then sent a great fleet, which landed an army in Kyushu (1281). The army was defeated in a mighty battle, and a tempest destroyed the fleet. This is the only battle against foreigners which the Japanese have ever fought upon their own soil.

Under the cruel and grasping Hojos, however, they had little civil wars unnumbered. For over a century this avaricious family held the country by the throat, not hesitating to make war even upon the emperors, whom they elevated and deposed at will. At length, the Emperor Go-Daigo, a man in years, was placed upon the throne. His generous conduct during a famine endeared him to the people and at the same time taught him the real dignity

THE RETURN OF THE EMPRESS

(The Manchu Court After Fleeing From Peking Returns in Full Pomp)

From a drawing by the German artist, Otto Gerlach

WE can give but little praise to the conduct of the allied troops once they had finished their gallant achievement of storming the Peking walls. The unarmed and bewildered Chinamen were many of them slain; then plundering began. The loot is said to have been enormous. The royal palace was broken into, and many of its most ancient treasures disappeared. The head officers of every nation strove to repress their men, but for several days Peking resembled some mediæval city suffering sack by the savage soldiery of that day.

Meanwhile, what had happened to the Chinese Empress and her court who had encouraged the Boxer movement? When the foreign troops began their actual attack upon the walls, the Empress and her suite marched forth from the royal palace surrounded by their most devoted Manchu regiments. They forced a passage through the crowds of terrified Chinese by firing rifle volleys into them; and thus as the Europeans entered the city from three sides, the Empress fled by the other. She and her followers did not stop till they were six hundred miles away in the far western city of Sian-fu. From there they opened negotiations with the allies, protested their entire innocence of the deeds of the wicked Boxers, and agreed to whatever terms of arrangement the Europeans demanded. When assured of their personal safety the Manchus returned to Peking more than a year later. The Empress resumed her autocratic rule over a nation which had never loved the Manchus and now hated them almost as bitterly as they did the Europeans.

VIII-39

This leader, Hideyoshi, is one of the great geniuses of Japan. He was of mean birth, yet, in a land wholly devoted to hereditary rank, he managed to raise himself to undisputed authority. He adopted as his standard the gourd in which he had carried water; and at every victory he added another gourd, until a whole bunch of them was borne before him, in defiant boast of both his origin and his power.

After grinding every rival under foot, Hideyoshi planned a great expedition against Corea, which had long neglected to send its ancient tribute to Japan, and had, in fact, become tributary to China. The Coreans, a quiet and peaceful race, sent Hideyoshi presents when demanded, and made every submission possible rather than fight the warlike Japanese. But the crafty general had wider plans in view, and he insisted on invasion.

By this time, almost all southern Japan was Christian after a fashion, but Hideyoshi himself was from the eastern provinces, and he did not trust the Christian daimios. He, therefore, despatched two armies into Corea, one composed of the troops of the southern princes, the other of some of his own veterans under a trusted lieutenant. The two forces failed to act in unison, and, therefore, failed of complete success. Yet they were far more than a match for the feeble Coreans, who had no regular army, and who after a little frantic resistance abandoned their land to the savage invaders. It was cruelly laid waste.

Chinese forces came to assist the Coreans, and were able to meet the Japanese upon more equal terms. Finally, such arrangements for peace were proposed by Hideyoshi as seem to reveal his secret purpose. His envoy suggested to the Chinese that Japan would promise never again to invade Corea, and that in return the deeply revered Chinese Emperor should declare Hideyoshi Emperor of Japan, and invest him with all the heavenly dignity of that rank. The ambitious general seems thus to have hoped to do away entirely with the imperial figure-heads, who for two thousand years had sat upon Japan's throne, and to take their place himself.

The arrogance of the Chinese, however, defeated his plan. He understood that they assented to his proposition; but when their embassy arrived at his court, they presented him only with the rank of a sort of Chinese viceroy. Hideyoshi tore up their papers in a rage, and his armies reinvaded Corea. That country, desolated before, was now so completely laid waste that it has never recovered its ancient culture and prosperity.

The Chinese and Japanese forces were still raging over the ruined land when Hideyoshi died. His chief general promptly recalled the troops to Japan, to make secure his own position and authority (1598). This general, Tokugawa Iyeyasu, became the founder of a new governing family, the Tokugawa. Keep-

THE CHINESE REBELLION

(The Capture of Nanking)

Drawn by Frederic de Haenen from a sketch made at the time

EVEN China has at last awakened to modern life, has cast off its ancient cumbersome government and become a republic. The active movement for this began as recently as 1910, when the Manchu sovereigns, who had held the land as foreign conquerors for three centuries, felt the pressure of their people's discontent and granted them a National Assembly. When, however, this assembly attempted to interfere with the despotic rule of the Manchu leaders, it was promptly told that its duties were only "advisory." It could command nothing. Then rebellion began, a sort of passive resistance at first, starting in August, 1911, and gradually spreading everywhere through the south of China. A republic was organized in Shanghai, and the rebels planned to seize possession of Nanking, which had been the ancient capital of China before the Manchu conquest. It was now to be the capital of a new China. On November 28, the patriot forces stormed the East Gate of the ancient city and after vigorous fighting drove the royalists from the town.

That was the death knell of the Manchu government. The republicans chose a "president of the republic of China," Sun Yat-sen, a learned doctor who had been educated in America and who had really organized the rebellion. In 1912 the Manchus formally abdicated, leaving as ruler of northern China a native regent, Yuan-Shih-kai. By 1913 his government and that at Nanking had fraternized, and Yuan-Shih-kai was everywhere accepted as president of China.

VIII-41

guese traders, and after Hideyoshi's death foreign monks seem to have returned unmolested.

Soon Iyeyasu began to imbibe the same suspicions of them as his predecessor had held. This is not remarkable, for the Spaniards were now struggling with the Portuguese to gain control of the profitable Japanese trade, and each of the two Christian nations seems to have accused the other of every variety of crime and plot against Japan.

In 1600, a Dutch trader, Adams, was wrecked on the coast. He found favor with the shogun, and opened his eyes to the true condition of the states of Europe. He told of the awful Inquisition, of Holland's long and but recently successful struggle against Spanish cruelty; and Iyeyasu, already suspicious of Catholicism, was horrified at the terrors to which it might expose his nation. Moreover, it must be remembered that it was the Christian daimios who had revolted against him; and it is undoubtedly true that some of these converted daimios, backed by the approval of the monks, had used force to compel their subjects to adopt Christianity.

In 1606, therefore, Iyeyasu issued a mild warning edict, calling attention to his predecessor's law against foreign preachers, and warning his people against the "false and corrupt" faith. This proved ineffectual, and, in 1614, a stern command was issued expelling all Christian monks from the country, ordering the destruction of all Christian churches, and directing all converts to the faith to abandon it.

Then ensued such a persecution as the faith has never elsewhere known. Many brave monks refused to desert their terrified flocks. Iyeyasu and his successor as well, were both determined to fight the fire with fire. Every horrible torture which Japanese ingenuity could devise was directed against the Christians, both native and foreign. This continued for years, especially in the southern island, Kyushu, and the port of Nagasaki, which had been the stronghold of the Portuguese. At first the Christians thrived under persecution, but wholesale murder wrought its purpose at last. Governor after governor, appointed by the shogun to Nagasaki, resigned his office, overcome by the horrors which he had to inflict. A crucifix was sent from town to town throughout the empire, and every person, even the tiniest child, had to trample on it or die.

At last, in 1637, there was one final desperate uprising. Christians, perhaps to the number of forty thousand, gathered in the strong fortress of Hara and defied the government. They were besieged for four months. Dutch traders aided the besiegers with cannon, though they claim not to have known that those besieged were Christian. In April, 1638, the castle was finally stormed, and every man, woman, and child within was slain. Thus ended Christianity in Japan.

Foreigners of every sort were excluded entirely from the empire. Even Japanese sailors, who had left the land, were not permitted to return. The Dutch were allowed to erect warehouses on a little artificial island, Deshima, outside of Nagasaki, and from there they traded with the people. The Chinese had a similar port. No other communication existed between Japan and the outside world for over two centuries. All progress stopped. The land stagnated.

THE EMPEROR GO-DAIGO ESCAPING TO SHIK-OKI

RECEPTION TO A EUROPEAN CONSUL IN 1860

Chapter CL

THE UNITED STATES BREAKS DOWN THE JAPANESE WALL

THE time has passed when any nation or people can shut itself up in its shell and refuse all intercourse with others. Stern and rigid as was Japan, she had to yield at last. The situation was tersely summed up in the remark of an American diplomat that if she did not open her ports we would "open our ports."

No modern nation has been so peculiarly interested in Japan as the United States. Between her people and us there has grown up a strong mutual regard, which is as marked to-day as forty years ago. Several causes united to bring about the opening of the Japanese ports, though such opening was inevitable in the natural order of events. One was the greatly extended trade with China through the "opium war"; another the large proportions to which the whale fishery had grown in the hands of Americans, and the other the tremendous boom given to California by the discovery of gold in 1848. A line of steamers was established between San Francisco and China. The distance was one-fourth of the way round the world, and, if obliged to take coal enough to last the entire voyage, the steamers could carry little else beside. The necessity for a coaling station in the Japanese islands became imperative.

No persons are quicker to see the demands of this nature than our naval officers. Commodore Matthew C. Perry was among the first to understand the situation, and his skill and qualifications for the important task led our government to place the Japan expedition in his charge. He made the most thorough

preparations. He was determined, no matter what circumstances arose, to gain communication with the mikado, even if it should become necessary to use force. But that was not to be employed until all other methods failed. There is no argument so convincing to stranger peoples as the display of maritime or military power. Japan would repel any advances from us, so long as she believed she could do it with safety, but she would hesitate before angering a nation that was powerful enough to sweep her from the face of the earth.

As I have said, the Commodore made every possible preparation for the eramarking expedition. He would not grant a single one of the many outside applications to accompany him, for he knew the vexation of having any persons on his ships who were not absolutely under his authority. He despatched vessels laden with coal to the Cape of Good Hope and Mauritius to guard against any deficiency in fuel, and he took on board no end of specimens of the various industries of his country. Among these were a small locomotive and several miles of track, which it was intended to lay down for a display of the capacities of the "iron horse." A considerable stretch of telegraph wire and the necessary implements for sending and receiving messages were also included in the curiosities that were sure to open the eyes of the Japanese, who are among the most curious and ingenious people in the world.

Naturally the first step in so important an enterprise would be the presentation to the ruler of Japan of a letter from the President of the United States. This was prepared with the utmost care by President Fillmore, who saluted the Japanese Emperor as his "Great and Good Friend." In well-chosen language the Emperor was reminded of the mutual advantages to be gained by friendship and commercial intercourse, and he was told that Commodore Perry went thither to assure the Emperor of the good-will of the United States, and to make arrangements for trade and the care of shipwrecked sailors cast upon the Japanese coast, and to agree upon some spot, satisfactory to the Emperor, where coal and supplies could be had by the vessels of our country. No letter could have had a more imposing envelope than this, for it was enclosed in a box of pure gold, which nestled in a beautiful rosewood casket, whose hinges were of the same precious metal.

The Perry expedition sailed from Norfolk, Virginia, November 24, 1852, doubled in due time the Cape of Good Hope, and entered the China Sea. After calling at several islands Perry dropped anchor in Yedo Bay, July 8, 1853. He had been promised a squadron of twelve vessels, but had been obliged to send back two even of the six he had, and there remained only the *Mississippi*, *Susquehanna*, *Plymouth*, and *Saratoga*, and of these the last two were mere sloops-of-war.

The Dutch had told the Japanese of the coming expedition, and they were

JAPAN'S ABORIGINES

(The Ainos engaging in Their Most Ancient Tribal Ceremony)

From a painting in 1901 by C. de Jankowski

JAPAN has had one great advantage over China in the far East, in that her people were much quicker to recognize the value of the Western civilization when it was thrust upon them. Hence they acquired military strength more rapidly than China; and, despite the vast size and population of the latter empire, Japan is to-day the foremost Asiatic power. Englishmen speak of her as the Great Britain of the East; because the two countries have the same military advantage in that they are islands lying off the coast of a great continent. This fortunate position gives them every facility for trade with the multitudes around them, yet they are secure against invasion except by ships. Hence Japan has become, like England, a naval power.

Yet the Japanese are themselves invaders of their land. They entered the beautiful islands as a wandering tribe far back in the old days when Rome was in her infancy. They found in the land a strange race of aborigines called the Ainos, and the two nations fought for many centuries, until the Ainos were slowly crowded northward into the coldest regions of northern Japan. Here they still live, though they have lost their fighting qualities and are the most peaceful of mortals. Only once in every year do they seem to return suddenly to their ancient ferocity. They have a strange annual ceremony of attacking a bear, which is a tiny animal in Japan, more like a dog. This little beast the Ainos shoot with arrows, raging at him and shrieking most furiously. This is their most ancient custom, perhaps a survival of days when men fought the beasts upon equal terms.

VIII-42

prepared for its appearance. The sight of the formidable men-of-war and the uniformed crews impressed them, but, as might be expected, they tried to "bluff" the visitors. Commodore Perry, however, was more proficient at the game than they. He assumed an overwhelming majesty and loftiness and refused to allow the visitor to see him, because the caller was only an insignificant "governor." After considerable dallying, two men, said to be princes sent by the Emperor, came to receive the letter borne to them from the other side of the world. The condition was that the communication should be delivered to these princes on shore. The Commodore replied that it was not proper for an officer of such exalted rank as he to go so far from his ships, and he would, therefore, move them within easy range of the spot that had been selected.

Fully understanding the barbarian mind, the Commodore made his visit gorgeously impressive in gold lace and dazzling uniforms. In a building specially erected for the purpose, the precious letter of President Fillmore was received, the golden box opened, the document displayed, and its meaning explained by the interpreter. Now, these two princes who were foremost on the side of the Japanese were shams, although one was declared to be the First Councillor of the Empire. Through the interpreter he replied acknowledging the receipt of the letter written by the President of the United States, but explaining that his government wished to have no foreigners in the country. So the Commodore was curtly informed that all that remained for him to do was to go home and wait until a formal reply was sent to the letter.

"Very well," was the condescending reply of the great American, "you need not hurry yourselves, and I will wait till May of next year, when you may expect to see me here again."

Perry sailed for Hong-kong, and, while there, received word from the Dutch at Deshima that the Emperor was dead, accompanied with the suggestion that he defer his return to Yedo. The Commodore suspected the news was a mere invention of opponents, who were determined to frustrate his purpose. It turned out that it was the shogun who had died, but the fact did not cause the Commodore to delay his return.

On the 13th of February, 1854, the American fleet once more entered Yedo Bay, but this time it was more formidable, for it consisted of three steam frigates and four sloops-of-war. A stop was made within seven miles of Yokohama and twenty-five miles from Yedo. Then followed proposals, shiftings of the place of meeting, refusals, counter proposals, amendments, banquets, dilly-dallying, and no end of assurances of mutual distinguished consideration, which in diplomacy generally mean exactly the opposite of the words. But the Japanese in the course of time became impressed with the resolution of the Ameri-

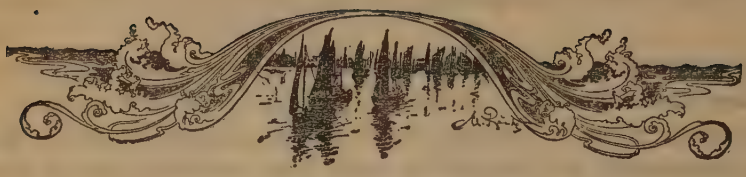
cans, who, it was clear, would never leave the country until a treaty was secured. It took weeks to arrive at this end, but the signing took place on the last day of March, 1854, and the treaty was sent to Washington for final action by our government.

This treaty, our first formal one made with any Asiatic country, permitted American ships to enter the harbor of Hakodate, and of Shimoda near Yedo, for securing necessary supplies; shipwrecked persons of either nation were to be cared for; trading facilities and other privileges were guaranteed, and the promise made that all privileges granted in the future to other nations should also be granted to the United States. This provision constitutes the "favored nation" clause.

When you visit the Smithsonian Institution, in Washington, do not fail to inspect the specimens of bronze, lacquer, porcelain, ivory, and silks, which were presented by the Japanese government at the signing of this famous treaty. The Japanese got a great deal more than they gave in the way of presents; for Commodore Perry left with them the little locomotive and car, the telegraph and considerable wire, guns, clocks, sewing machines, charts, maps, and enough curiosities to stock several large establishments. These must have impressed the "Yankees of the East" with the immeasurable gain that would be theirs when they should secure free interchange with that great nation on the other side of the globe, where these strange things were made. The shell was pierced at last, and the darkness that had shrouded the island empire for ages was illumined by a beam of real sunlight. The door had been opened, though as yet only on a crack, and the first step taken along that career which has made Japan one of the most marvellous nations in all history.

The inevitable followed: no sooner had the success of the United States become known than other governments scrambled for a similar prize. Six months after the treaty with us was signed, one was made with Great Britain. A few months later, Russia secured one, and not long after another was signed with Holland. These were really preliminary treaties, or conventions, and did little more than open the way for the comprehensive arrangements that followed. It was specified, however, in each treaty, that whatever privilege was granted to any one nation should be extended to all the others.

Now, although Japan accepted all these proposals, it must be remembered that she did not do so willingly, but only because she could not help herself. Each nation said in substance to her as did ours: "We desire to be friends with you; it will not be our fault if we are not; we desire to trade our products for yours; you may not like it, but, begging pardon, that doesn't make the least bit of difference; we are determined to have the chance to barter or buy your goods, and we shall give you a chance to obtain ours. You have been wise in



AMATERASU

(The Ancient Sun Goddess of Japanese Legend)

From a painting by the French artist, Paul Quinsac

THE Japanese regard themselves as a younger branch of the great Chinese race, and they are obviously of the same parent stock, though the Japanese resemble also the Malays, so that perhaps they are really a mingling of these two stocks. Old Japanese legends represent their ancestors as being a wandering tribe upon the Asiatic mainland and entering Japan from Corea. They came in days when China was already an ancient and long established empire, and doubtless they were a frontier tribe under China's dominion.

They were originally, say the Japanese, children of the Sun, and their most ancient religious worship is of the sun goddess Amaterasu. This fair goddess mother left her children; so they set out journeying toward the dawn, the land of the earliest sunshine, to search for Amaterasu. It was this search which brought them to Japan, the most eastern land. Its native name, "Dai Nippon," means country of the rising sun.

Apparently, therefore, their sun worship was a form of ancestor worship, which is called Shintoism and is the basic religion of Japan to-day. In later ages Confucianism reached them from China, and then Buddhism. They absorbed both of these faiths and to some extent superimposed them upon their own, without abandoning the worship of their ancestral ghosts. Indeed it is this faculty for absorption, for adopting the new while retaining the old, which makes the most marked characteristic of Japan to-day.

VIII-43

opening your ports, for it has saved us the necessity of opening them ourselves; perhaps you do not think so now, but the day is near when you will admit that the wisest step you have ever taken in the history of the empire was when you ended your isolation and came forward among the peoples of the rest of the world."

Japan did not like this wholesale letting down of the bars, but what could she do to help it? Her people were not blind, and, when they saw the great fleets and their tremendous armaments, the thousands of men who composed the crews, armed with the finest modern weapons, and knew that all these were less than a handful compared with the multitudes across the sea ready to ravage and desolate her at the first word of command, she could do nothing but accept the situation and make a virtue of necessity. But as it was, there were two violent and bitter parties in the empire: those who favored the opening of the ports, and those who, closing their eyes to the inevitable, opposed the abandonment of the policy of isolation.

Great revolutions need time for the innumerable varying conditions and interests to accommodate themselves to one another. There was certain to be the most serious trouble in Japan, because of the entrance of the foreigners, toward whom some were tolerant, while others felt implacable hostility. The greed of these foreign Powers and their mutual jealousy added to the unrest of the people. Since it was the shogun who had made the various treaties with the outside world, he was accused of usurping the functions that belonged to the rightful sovereign of the empire. Logic, therefore, demanded that none of these treaties should be accepted as binding until ratified by the mikado. In former times, all agreements had been made with the shogun, but now his power steadily dwindled, and he became extremely unpopular with his people.

The treaty secured by Commodore Perry called for the appointment of a consul who was to come to Shimoda at any time within a year and a half from the signing of the document. Mr. Townsend Harris, the United States consul, arrived in the summer of 1856 and located at Shimoda. His appointment was a good one, and by his tact and courtesy he steadily won the confidence of the native authorities. Once when he fell ill, the shogun sent two of his best physicians with orders to cure him under penalty of losing their own lives if they failed. Luckily, however, he recovered his health.

It has been said that the treaties with Japan, as first made, were merely preliminary, and opened the way for the more definite ones that it was intended should follow. The shogun appreciated the peril in which he was placed by what he had already done, and shrank from taking a further step that he knew would add to the hatred with which he was now regarded. But the foreigners

NINTOKU PITIES THE JAPANESE

(The Emperor Interrupts His Sports to Study the Sorrow of His People)

After a painting by F. Frenzem

GRADUALLY the Japanese waxed numerous and powerful. Toward the close of the third century of the Christian era they had become so strong that they recrossed to the almost forgotten mainland and conquered Corea. This conquest was probably no more than a plundering raid, but its influence upon the Japanese was very great. Through Corea they learned much of the wisdom of China, and made it their own. Their rulers took to themselves the title of Emperors, and instead of being mere military despots, began to recognize their duty toward the people.

The first Emperor educated under Chinese precepts of justice and duty, that is under Confucianism, was Nintoku. Of him the pretty story is told that one day while he was out hunting with some of his court he came to an open space whence he could look down upon his capital city. It was a bleak autumn day but no smoke rose above the city to tell of warmth within the houses. Nintoku asked his courtiers why this was so and was told that the people could not afford fuel as they must pay everything to him. Smitten with shame Nintoku at once proclaimed that he would accept no tribute whatever for three years. Nor did he, though he and his court as well almost starved. The people watching his misery, crowded to him with entreaties that he would accept food at least as a gift from their now bounteous stores. But the Emperor clung firmly to his purpose until three untaxed years had made his people prosperous. Thereafter he drew easily from their abundance more than he had before wrung from their poverty.

VIII-44

paid it, and in doing so intensified the fear of the samaurai that their country was to be apportioned piecemeal among the outside barbarians.

The situation grew worse. Seldom did a foreigner venture out alone, and even when in the company of friends, all were armed and on the alert. The foreign ministers dwelt at Yedo, and each residence there was strongly guarded, but among the guards were undoubtedly members of the samaurai, for the houses of the ministers were constantly attacked at night, and persistent watchfulness was necessary to prevent their being burned to the ground. Official warning was conveyed to the legations to keep within doors, but such a life quickly became intolerable. The secretary of the American minister disregarded the advice, and one day, when on his way home, was furiously attacked and slain. The Japanese government promptly paid the bill, but claimed it was unable to apprehend the murderer. Finally, all the ministers, except our own, removed to Yokohama.

Amid this violence and insecurity of life two young Japanese gave a curious proof of their national trait of seeking the "rock bottom" truth in a dispute. No doubt an overwhelming majority of the inhabitants of Japan believed the empire was in imminent danger of being overrun and divided among the foreign nations on the other side of the world; but though there was vague knowledge of the people across the ocean, very little was clearly understood of them. "Do those 'foreign devils' intend to destroy Japan? Are they forming their plans for invasion by wholesale of our country? Does Europe intend to subjugate us? It looks that way from this distance, yet we cannot know it for a fact, until we find out for ourselves; and how shall we find out? Obviously there is but one method, and that is to go to Europe and see with our own eyes and hear with our own ears."

It was a strange resolve taken by two young samaurai of high rank, for it not only involved arduous labor in learning new languages, but was sure to place them in the most humiliating situations for a long time. Moreover, to take such a step was to incur the punishment of death if they ever dared to return to Japan. None understood all these trials and perils better than they, yet they resolved to face them.

By exercising their native ingenuity, they secured passage to England, without attracting marked attention to themselves. They carried little money, and were forced to take menial employment; but they were not only deft of hand, but quick-witted, observant, and, like all their race, ready to absorb information in whatever form it came. It did not take them long to acquire a speaking acquaintance with the English language, and soon they learned to read it also. They studied the leading newspapers, questioned with discretion, and were soon impressed by the fact that there was not a thought in Europe

of invading or subjugating their native country. A dozen years before, an East Indian prince had made a tour of Great Britain, and on his return home was asked whether he would join in a revolt against the English rule. His reply contained a world of significance: "No; I have seen Woolwich."

In some respects the feelings of the samaurai were similar. Never before had they dreamed of such vast military power, such stupendous reserve strength, such resistless might as they now saw. Compared with England, Japan was a pigmy, centuries behind in knowledge, learning, arts, sciences, and all that goes to make a nation great. Japan had but one way of attaining the position to which her native ability entitled her, and that was to become a pupil of civilization. She could never be born into the higher and nobler life until she had passed through the "pangs of transformation."

Little was known of the visit to England of these two young men, Ito and Inouye, members of the clan of Choshu; but who shall measure the far-reaching consequences of their action? Ito served as prime minister of Japan for years, and wrote its Constitution, while Inouye held numerous high offices, among which were those of minister of state and ambassador to Corea. But for the knowledge they gained while serving as house servants in a foreign country, the tremendous upheaval and revolution in Japan, which has been well termed her "awakening," would have been postponed for many years.

Ito and Inouye returned home at a critical time. All Japan was in a ferment, and in the south portion of the empire, the hostility to foreigners broke into open acts. While an American merchant ship was sailing through the Strait of Shimonoseki, she was fired upon by the shore batteries, but escaped without injury to her crew. It was clear to the American minister at Yedo that the southern clan of Choshu were beyond control of their government, and the only way to stop their attacks was for the foreigners to teach them a needed lesson. The sloop-of-war *Wyoming* lay in the harbor of Yokohama, and her captain being appealed to, expressed a willingness to administer the punishment. He had been hunting over the globe for the Confederate cruiser *Alabama*, and having failed to overhaul that elusive rover, was ready to take a hand in anything that offered itself.

It was in July, 1863, that the *Wyoming* steamed into the Strait of Shimonoseki, where she caught sight of a steamer and brig of the enemy hugging the shore under the protection of the batteries. Ordinarily such a situation would have been hopeless for the attacking party, and the samaurai were eager for the chance to sink the audacious American that dared thus to put her head into the lion's mouth. The battle lasted a little more than an hour, by which time the brig had been sent to the bottom, the steamer blown up, and one of the

HIDEYOSHI DEFIES THE CHINESE

(The Chinese Envoy Proclaims Japan a Vassal State)

After a Japanese painting

IN the year 1582 a Japanese general, Hideyoshi, defeated all his rivals and became absolute master of Japan, though still retaining a nominal Emperor of the royal family. Hideyoshi is among the most celebrated of the Japanese. He was a man who by valor and ability worked his own way to the front, and then boasted of his low rank, carrying before him as his standard a peasant's water gourd. After every victory over some aristocratic general, Hideyoshi added another gourd to his standard, until he had a great mass of the humble vessels borne before him as he marched.

Having achieved the mastery of Japan, Hideyoshi revived his country's long forgotten suzerainty over Corea. That country was now tributary to China; but Hideyoshi invaded it and laid it waste. Chinese troops came to rescue Corea, but these also were defeated. Then Hideyoshi made a surprising offer. He wanted to do away with his puppet rulers and become in his own name Emperor of Japan; he believed the Japanese people would acquiesce in this if he had authority for the deed from the highly revered Chinese Emperor, the ancient "Son of Heaven." So Hideyoshi offered to surrender the province of Corea to China, in exchange for the title of Emperor. The "Son of Heaven" readily agreed to this; but the haughty envoys he sent to Japan named Hideyoshi not an independent Emperor, but a mere viceroy of the Chinese. He was furious, drove the Chinese envoys from his land, and began a most savage ravaging of Corea, in the midst of which he died.

VIII-48

batteries silenced. A second battery was knocked to pieces by a French man-of-war as a punishment for firing upon a despatch vessel.

This affair was a revelation to the natives, but the Japanese have always been a warlike people, intense lovers of their country, and ready to face death at any time in her defence. They were not yet defeated, nor were they ready to admit that they had no hope against the "foreign devils." The numerous clans in Japan were all so anxious to have the honor of destroying the invaders, that they fought with one another. Thus there were bloody times in the fair land.

You will understand that it was at Yedo that the liberal policy of the empire prevailed, and consequently there was deep resentment toward the court of the shogun. A delegation went thither from the Satsuma clan, the rulers of Kyushu, to urge the shogun to drive the barbarians from the country. Knowing the object of their visit, he refused to receive the delegation. Soured and revengeful, they set out on their return, all in a mood for any kind of mischief.

They had not ridden far when they met three gentlemen and a lady who had come out from Yokohama to visit a temple not far distant. The rules of the road demanded that the visitors should draw aside, dismount, and await the passage of the daimio's train, which contained several hundred men. Perhaps their guide did not understand Japanese etiquette, or, if he did, he considered himself and companions exempt from its requirements. Be that as it may, he did a very rash thing, for he spurred forward, followed by his friends, heedless of the scowls of the samaurai, who, besides being in a sullen mood, were angered by this gross discourtesy.

Before the little party had penetrated to the middle of the train, they were fiercely attacked, and their leader was struck a blow with a two-handed sword which brought him dying to the ground. Special enmity was exhibited toward him, because he had refused to heed the cautions and entreaties of his companions, and, sad as was the incident, it cannot be denied that he brought it upon himself. The other two men were wounded; but the lady was fortunate enough to escape the blow aimed at her. The three made all haste back, and were attended to by an American medical missionary.

The tragedy caused intense excitement, and in Yokohama indignation meetings were held and a demand made that a force should be instantly organized to pursue and punish those who had committed the crime. The only cool man in the community was the British *chargé d'affaires*, who assured his friends that such a course would bring frightful punishment upon Yokohama and involve Japan in a war with Great Britain. He managed to restrain the vengeful ardor of his friends, and when matters had cooled, he sent a demand for the punish-

ment of the murderer, and the payment of half a million dollars by the shogun's government and twenty-five thousand by the daimio, who led the train.

It required stern measures to enforce this claim. The assassin was never apprehended, nor outside of his own people was it ever known who he was. Admiral Kuper, with a squadron of seven vessels, sailed to Kagoshima, the principal city of the Satsumas, which had a population of more than one hundred and fifty thousand. It was notified that the demand of the British government must be paid within a specified time, and no attention being given to the warning, the squadron opened fire and executed its mission with fearful completeness. Several new steamers were burned, the batteries knocked to pieces, and the large city half destroyed by fire. Then the immense fine was handed over, but the assassin still escaped unharmed.

Japan was fast learning her lesson. Until England's blood money was thus collected, the Satsumas did not believe any foreigners existed who could conquer them. They claimed, and no doubt with truth, to be as brave as the foreigners. Yet they had been crushingly defeated by the superior armament of their pale-faced enemies. Consequently, they resolved to learn to use the same kind of weapons. Thus another step was taken in the transformation of the empire.

Meanwhile, every vessel that sailed through the Straits of Shimonoseki had to run the gauntlet of the Choshu batteries. . The thing became so unbearable that the American, English, French, and Dutch ministers conferred together and determined to take action to end the annoyance. We know nothing is so impressive in the way of argument to a barbarian as the display of force, and the fleet that steamed into the Straits, representing the four nations named, numbered nearly a score of vessels. They opened a vigorous attack upon the forts, which were defended with great bravery, but one after the other was captured and destroyed, until, as the only way of escaping annihilation, the clan opened negotiations for peace.

While these arrangements were under way, the two wanderers, Ito and Inouye, returned from their European investigations. Their rank and the knowledge they brought with them made both prominent in the movements looking to peace. Their friends were profoundly impressed, when assured that there was not a shadow of fear that any foreign nation held a thought of invading the country. The result of this information and the severe lessons received was that even the warlike clans of Satsuma and Choshu expressed themselves in favor of admitting the foreigners under certain restrictions.

The representatives of the foreign powers met the Japanese ministers to confer over the adjustment of the unhappy state of affairs. An agreement was made in October, 1864, that the government of Yedo should be given the option of paying an indemnity of three million dollars for the damages to ship-

ping in the Shimonoseki Strait, or of opening new ports. It chose to pay the money, great as was the sum. This course of the allied Powers has been justly condemned as harsh and unwarrantable, for the Yedo government had disavowed and apologized for the action of the turbulent Choshu clan, and pledged itself, if time were given, to bring them to subjection. It is a pleasure to record that our government returned its share of the "loot."

SOLDIER OF ANCIENT JAPAN

ENTRANCE OF THE PROTESTING SATSUMAS INTO YEDO

Chapter CLI

JAPAN'S WONDERFUL ADVANCE

THE powerful southern clans of Satsuma and Choshu, which had been humiliated with the consent of the shogun, were determined to overturn his government at Yedo. As a first step in that direction, they plotted to secure possession of the emperor and utilize his authority in the formation of a new government. The present form was a dual one, and the momentous game to be played out was whether it was to continue or whether there was to be one supreme organization. The theory, as you know, was that the emperor was the absolute head and ruler, and the shogun was his chief general, his executive; but the latter had to maintain the emperor and his court, and it was inevitable that the nominal head of the empire should be really under the control of the shogun. The court of the emperor was a hotbed of clashing interests, for the friends of the shogun were active, and were guardians even of the palace.

The shogun, Hitosubashi, who came into power in 1866, had little liking for the annoyances and perils of his office, and preferred the life of a student, but he had to face his responsibilities. It would seem that there ought to have been peace between him and the emperor in Kioto, since the sister of the latter became the wife of the shogun. But the ferment was kept alive by the Satsuma and Choshu, who had the support of other clans beside their own. Thus matters stood when in the early months of 1867 the emperor died, and was succeeded by a boy only fifteen years old. He was Mutsuhito, who at this

writing is the mikado, or emperor, of the Japanese empire. To this youth, the shogun went to pay his respects, and then in November resigned his office.

This resignation of the shogun brought about an embarrassing state of affairs, for the revolutionists had been eager to fight him, and were now at a loss as to what course to pursue. In the delicate crisis the foreign ministers gathered at Osaka to witness the opening of the port, which was announced for New Year's day, 1868. Two days later the clans took possession of the palace gates and the frightened shogun fled. When ordered to appear before the Emperor, he took with him a large armed force, but was defeated, and, having formed the habit of running away, he fled by sea to Yedo, where his chief councillor advised him to commit hara-kiri, as the right way out of the trouble. He declined, whereupon his adviser committed hara-kiri himself.

The southern clans had joined in a formidable combination, and they decided to bring into subjection those in the north who still clung to the shogun's cause. The necessary force was gathered, Yedo submitted, and the shogun was sent to his castle, where at this writing he still resides, deeply interested in his studies of photography. The way was opened for the formation of a new government and the all-important question was as to what its nature should be. The revolutionists displayed unusual wisdom in selecting a board of councillors, composed of all the ablest men of the land, and thus smoothed all jealousy that might have arisen between the clans. One of the first things done was to ratify the new treaties, after which there were few attacks upon the foreigners.

The next astonishing announcement was that the Emperor in person would receive the various foreign ministers and accept their credentials. You have no idea of the profound sensation caused by this announcement. Never before had the "Child of Heaven" allowed himself to be gazed upon by strangers, and here he was about to give the privilege to the foreign invaders of Japan! It was incredible, and for a time thousands refused to credit the astounding report, which nevertheless was true, for the barbarians were to be welcomed into the sacred city of Kioto. It is not to be supposed that the councillors who persuaded the Emperor to descend to the unprecedented step loved those foreigners any more than at first, but they had need of them. Japan's welfare demanded that she should drink from the fountain, even though the waters were bitter. It is the nauseating medicine that sometimes is the most beneficial to the ailing system.

It was a great day for Kioto, whose streets swarmed with men of all classes. Aware of the inflammable character of this mongrel material, every precaution was taken to crush any outbreak. While the British minister was being escorted to the palace by a powerful military guard, a couple of furious samaurai

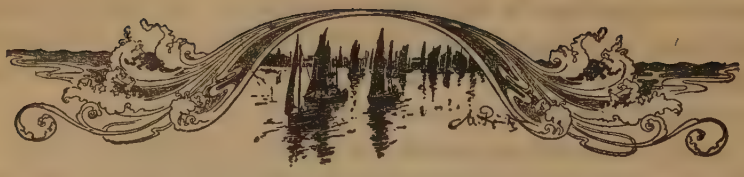
began a wild attack with their swords upon the escort. One was slain, but the other had almost reached the minister through a lane of dead bodies before the spry Japanese guards cut him down and carried him desperately wounded into a house near at hand. The incident was so disturbing that the audience was deferred to the next day. The government was quick to express its regret, and the minister equally prompt in accepting the apology in the same spirit. The foreigners met the Heaven Child the next day, and thus one of the landmarks in the history of Japan was passed.

Rapid as was the transformation, it was a work of supreme importance which engaged the abilities of her foremost men. Many important steps remained to be taken, and a mistake at the beginning was liable to bring down the whole structure in ruins. In the old timber was some wood to be preserved, but what was it and of how much did it consist?

One primal fact was self-evident from the beginning. The Emperor could no longer live his secluded life. He must come out into the open, take an active part in public affairs, be accessible to his subjects, and identify himself with their interests. The most important thing was to escape old traditions by transferring the seat of government from Kioto to Yedo, whose name was changed to Tokio. The young Emperor, now sixteen years old, attended a meeting of the nobles, took the oath, and, having been advised by older and wiser heads, pledged himself to form a deliberative body, to have all measures passed upon by public opinion, to break down the uncivilized customs of former times, and to see that impartial justice was the basis of all action. The transfer of the capital was actually accomplished in November, 1869.

As evidence that it is never safe to move too fast along the path of reform, it is recorded that a motion to abolish hara-kiri, made in the deliberative assembly of this same year, where there were two hundred and nine members, received only three votes, and the member making the motion was killed for his effrontery. The work of transformation having begun, was, however, pressed with amazing thoroughness. British officers were employed to form a modern navy and French officers to organize the army in accordance with modern principles of warfare. Schools were established and the best of teachers employed. The thirst for knowledge was unquenchable. Boys, young men and old, would apply themselves with an appetite that was never satisfied. The instructor was not called upon to give any attention to discipline, for his pupils came to *learn*, and had no thought of anything else. Several score of bright young nobles were also sent to Europe and America to pursue their studies and learn all they could for the benefit of Japan. Most of us have met one or more of the bright-eyed, energetic young fellows at some of our American colleges.

When we look at the Japan of to-day, and comprehend the marvellously rapid



THE FIRST AMERICANS IN JAPAN

(Members of Commodore Perry's Expedition Visit Tokio and are Ignored)

From a sketch made at the time

FOR over two hundred years Japan remained in the isolation in which Iyeyasu had enclosed her. The rule of the military class or "samaurai" continued; Shogun succeeded Shogun in the seat of actual government at Tokio; and one nominal Emperor after another sat in imperial idleness in his inland palace at Kioto. Then came the awakening. It was not voluntary upon the part of the Japanese. One day the Dutch traders at Nagasaki warned the Japanese Shogun that they had learned that the far-off nation of the United States was dissatisfied with Japan's treatment of sailors shipwrecked on her coast and was sending a naval expedition to insist on a definite treaty about the matter. The Dutch advised the Japanese officials not to see the members of the expedition at all. So when this United States fleet did actually reach Japan in 1853 under our Commodore Perry, the authorities there were determined to ignore it.

Perry had only four small war-ships, but these seemed very formidable to the Japanese. So the fleet was allowed to approach Tokio, and Perry and a few of his officers were even received on shore, where we can imagine how they stared at these Japanese who had admitted no stranger among them for so many generations. Yet the instinctive courtesy of the Japanese is such that they refrained entirely from staring at the strangers. No real Japanese aristocrat would meet Perry; but a pretended noble was sent to receive his letter from the United States President, and to thank him for the visit which was not wanted.

VIII-50

strides she has made in civilization and material and intellectual progress, we are apt to lose sight of the writhing she underwent during that stupendous evolution. If the "pangs of transformation" wrought this wonderful change, it is none the less true that more than once they threatened the life of the empire. Great minds threw all their energies into the work, but they had to combat equally brilliant minds who were opposed to them, and who were thoroughly honest in their belief that the revolution would prove fatal and throw back the country into barbarism and anarchy.

But the grand work went on. The samaurai numbered four hundred thousand warriors, all able patriotic men, though many might be ignorant and fanatic. Some of the latter kind, certain that ruin impended, raised the standard of rebellion; but a majority remained loyal to the government which steadily acquired the power of sustaining itself. The representatives of the foreign treaty powers warned their citizens that under all circumstances they must remain strictly neutral and not sell arms or ammunition to either side.

Seven Japanese war vessels, mounting eighty-three guns, lay at Shinasawa, off Tokio, and when the shogun yielded his office, he promised to turn these over to the government forces. They were under the command of a brave and skilful native who had studied naval warfare in Europe. He sulked over the thought of giving them up, and, on the night before the day named for the surrender, he stealthily steamed out through Yedo bay and headed northward, where the people were more friendly to him. The imperial commander followed with his fleet and made his way to Hakodate, where hostilities lasted till July, 1869, by which time the rebel leaders saw it was hopeless to continue resistance. Then the strange offer was made by the two principal ones to commit hara-kiri, in order to save their followers from punishment after surrender. The imperial commanders would not permit this, whereupon the two insurgent commanders submitted unreservedly and were sent to Tokio.

It was then that the empire gave proof of genuine civilization, such as the United States displayed at the close of the great civil war, when the leaders of the Southern Confederacy were in her power, and such a proof, too, as Austria, France, and even England, have at times found beyond their reach. Both of the insurgent leaders were pardoned, and none of their supporters were punished. Magnanimity had been earned by the heroic devotion of the insurgents, and the empire was strengthened by its humanity.

Meanwhile, the work of governmental organization went steadily forward. A Constitution was formulated, which was in the nature of an experiment, and subsequently underwent several changes. This Constitution created the departments of foreign affairs, of home affairs, of war, of finance, of legislative affairs, of the Shinto religion, and of supreme administration.

You have been told of the remarkable fact brought to light in China, where a community of Jews were found living in the heart of the empire, as they had done for unknown centuries. Something of the same nature was now discovered in Japan. During the frightful persecution in the seventeenth century, it was supposed that the last spark of Christianity had been stamped out, but lo! it now appeared that several hundred Christians were living near Nagasaki, where their ancestors had lived from time immemorial. They had survived the flames of persecution, and through all the dreadful vicissitudes and persecutions had secretly maintained the faith of their fathers.

When the imperial government learned the astounding truth, it issued an edict for the suppression of the "evil sect." The danger of the Christians quickly roused the sympathies of the foreign Powers who remonstrated with the imperial government. The latter replied that the affair was nobody's business but its own, being purely local, and that the deep-seated enmity felt toward Christianity throughout Japan was justification for the proclamation. The protests of the Powers, however, tempered the severity of the government toward these Christians. Although it was ordered that all families who refused to recant should be deported, only a very few were sent away, and finally they were allowed to return, and that was the end of religious persecution in Japan.

Perhaps the most remarkable of the many remarkable events in the building up of the new empire was the destruction of the feudal system that had held Japan helplessly bound for centuries. The extraordinary feature of this movement is that the surrender of their feudal privileges by the daimios was voluntary, but they saw it must inevitably follow the assumption of supreme power by the Emperor. The situation of Japan at this time was similar in some respects to that of our own country at the close of the Revolution. The cohesive force which had held the thirteen colonies together while struggling for their lives, snapped asunder as soon as independence was secured. It was clear to all intelligent minds in Japan that their government could never hold itself secure against domestic enemies until the power of the daimios scattered throughout the empire was surrendered to the Emperor. It was beyond his ability to bring these daimios or princes into subjection, for they were far more powerful than he.

But the happiest of all solutions was effected by the daimios themselves through the voluntary surrender of their possessions and men. The most important of these offers, signed by the leading daimios in Japan, contained these impressive words: "The place where we live is the Emperor's land, and the food which we eat is grown by the Emperor's men. How can we make it our own? We now reverently offer up the lists of our possessions and men, with

THE FIRST FOREIGN RESIDENT

(Townsend Harris, America's First Japanese Consul, Escorted in State into Shimoda)

After a drawing by the French artist, A. Marie

WHILE Commodore Perry was thus received with a show of courtesy, he was positively informed that Japan desired no intercourse with America. Perry went away, but found excuse to return a year later. His courtesy, his persistency, and doubtless also the power of his ships, led the Japanese to receive him at last. Perry had shrewdly brought with him some of the most marvelous of modern inventions, a little railroad engine with tracks, a telegraph apparatus, clocks, sewing machines, etc. The ingenious Japanese became deeply interested in these and agreed to a sort of temporary treaty. By this the nominal object of the expedition was attained, the protection of shipwrecked American sailors, and also its broader object, the opening of Japan to American trade. It was agreed that our ships might "in case of need" land at the Japanese port of Shimoda, near Tokio, and also that an American consul should reside permanently at Shimoda to protect the interests of his countrymen.

So Perry went home, and in 1856 a consul was sent out. The American selected for this difficult post was Mr. Townsend Harris, of New York. So well did he succeed in winning the respect and admiration of the Japanese that, when he was once taken ill in Shimoda, the Shogun sent two of his own physicians to attend him with word that they would be executed if Mr. Harris died. Fortunately for the doctors he got well.

VIII-51

the prayer that the Emperor will take good measures for rewarding those to whom reward is due, and taking from those to whom punishment is due."

The splendid example thus set was followed with few trifling exceptions throughout the empire. In August, 1869, the Emperor issued a decree making known the abolition of all the daimiates and the turning of their revenues into the imperial treasury. Thus, at a single sweep, feudalism was brushed out of existence. Wise provisions were made for the great change. While the daimios were patriotic and unselfish, they were conceited, and thought no other people in Japan so well qualified to rule as they. This belief had to be humored, so far as was safe, the more especially as it had a good deal of reason for existing.

No one can foresee all the difficulties to be overcome at the beginning of such an astounding career as that of Japan. Some of these difficulties would be called minor, but these are often the most trying, as the continual buzzing and nipping of a single mosquito is sometimes more exasperating than a single violent blow. The samaurai were properly called to the leading positions in Japan, and their rule was wise; the inhabitants thought it gentle. Yet they had the power to inflict blows and to put criminals to torture. This was not known when the first treaties were made, but when it came out, no foreign nation could consent to have any of its citizens placed at the mercy of the Japanese judges. New treaties were made which stipulated that all accused foreigners should be tried according to the laws of their own countries, and before the consuls appointed by their own governments. This angered the samaurai, who declared the foreigners thought themselves better than the Japanese, whereas they should be taught that all stood on the same footing.

Rebellious outbreaks of the samaurai continued, in fact, down to 1877, when the last and most serious was crushed. It was headed by a Satsuma daimio, Saigo. Under his leadership there had been established in the southern island training schools, where several thousand young samaurai continued their ancient military training, supplemented by a knowledge of modern arms. Perhaps twenty thousand of these joined him in a desperate effort to drive out the foreigners. The formidable force marched northward against Tokio; but were met and defeated by overwhelming government armies. Saigo, forced to retreat, slew himself, as did many of his friends. His defeat had been mainly due to earnest reformers sprung from his own clan, and the most prominent of these, Okubo Toshimichi, the imperial minister for internal affairs, was soon after slain by a samaurai, who sought revenge.

Count Ito, one of the two lads who went to England as domestic servants, in order to learn whether their country was in danger of invasion and conquest, now made another visit to Europe to study the Constitutions of the different

governments. This unusually intelligent man did his work thoroughly, and when he returned home, drew up a Constitution modelled after that of the German empire. The governing body was to be a diet, which, like our own Congress, was to consist of two branches. The lower house was to be composed of members elected by the people, while the upper branch, similar to our Senate, was made up of hereditary members or princes of the blood. In this upper house, the other nobles were to be elected by members of their own rank, and the Emperor had the right of appointing members for special services to the country.

The new Constitution was published in 1889, the Emperor took the oath, and the diet opened amid impressive ceremonies. It quickly proved itself an adept in civilized methods, for the members learned how to become angry in debate, to forget the courtesies for which the nation is famous, and the overwhelming majority of samaurai quarrelled among themselves, just as if they belonged to the Austrian Reichstag, though I am glad to say they have never yet gone to the disgraceful lengths of the members of that notorious body of lawmakers.

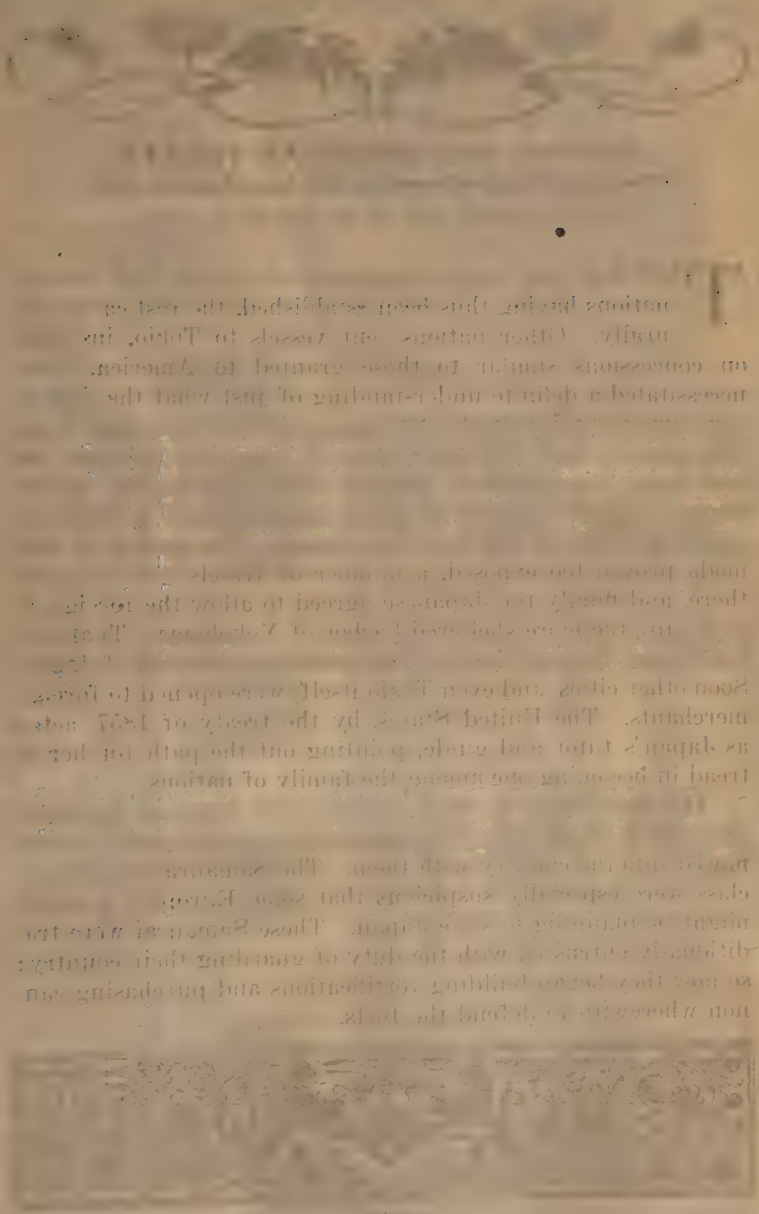
You will be interested to learn about the national anthem of Japan, which is the shortest of all national anthems. It is called "Kimi Ga Yo," from its first three words, and consists of thirty-two syllables, which count in poetry, however, as thirty-one. This striking brevity is due to the national fondness for conciseness of phrase and for economy of expression in all forms of art. The Japanese call the patriotic song a "tanka," or verse of five lines, the first and third being of five and the others of seven syllables. Here is the anthem in Japanese with an English translation:

KIMI GA YO.

Kimi ga yo wa
  Chiyo ni yachiyo ni
Sazare ishi no
  Iwawo to narite
  Koke no musu made.

TRANSLATION.

May our Lord's dominion last
Till a thousand years have passed
  Twice four thousand times o'ertold!
Firm as changeless rock, earth-rooted,
Moss of ages uncomputed.



SIGNING THE AMERICAN TREATY

(The Formal Treaty of Friendship with Japan Signed in 1857)

From a drawing made on the spot by W. Heine

THE first step in the intercourse of Japan with foreign nations having thus been established, the rest came naturally. Other nations sent vessels to Tokio, insisting on concessions similar to those granted to America. This necessitated a definite understanding of just what the American agreement involved. So commissioners were sent from this country, and a formal treaty of friendship between the two lands was signed in 1857 in Tokio, the capital of the Shogun. Quite a group of Europeans gathered at Shimoda round Mr. Harris, the American consul. The harbor of Shimoda proved too exposed, a number of vessels were wrecked there, and finally the Japanese agreed to allow the foreigners to occupy the more sheltered harbor of Yokohama. That city has become the metropolis of the modern civilization of Japan. Soon other cities, and even Tokio itself, were opened to foreign merchants. The United States, by the treaty of 1857, acted as Japan's tutor and guide, pointing out the path for her to tread in becoming one among the family of nations.

The great mass of the Japanese were, however, intensely distrustful of all these foreigners and of all the new life that flowed into the country with them. The Samaurai or military class were especially suspicious that some European country might be planning to seize Japan. These Samaurai were traditionally entrusted with the duty of guarding their country; so now they began building fortifications and purchasing cannon wherewith to defend the forts.

VIII-52

THE JAPANESE IN SEOUL

Chapter CLII

THE CHINESE WAR—THE CAMPAIGN IN COREA

IT has been said that no nation can be considered safely established until it has passed triumphantly through two ordeals, which must come to all sooner or later. It has first to win the recognition from other Powers that it is entitled to a place among them, as the United States did in the Revolution. Then a nation must prove its ability to sustain itself against all internal foes, as was done by our own country during the crimson years from 1861 to 1865.

Japan had to pass through these ordeals in reverse order. She paid fifty thousand lives and half a billion dollars to quench the flames of rebellion against her authority, but she did it well. Still she had not won the respect of the great Powers of the world, and it may be added that few believed she would ever prove capable of doing so. To most people, the Japanese, Coreans, and Chinese were in the same class, and it was often difficult to tell the difference between the members of the three nationalities. They looked alike, and one was considered the equal of the other in mettle and physical ability. All were of short stature as compared with Caucasians. They had black eyes and hair and sallow skins, were expert imitators, but seemed to lack the sturdy aggressiveness that has made the Caucasians conquerors.

The Japanese are proud, sensitive, intensely patriotic, brave, and always ready to measure swords with their foes, no matter who these may be. The world had already learned enough of Corea to understand her feebleness as compared

with Japan, but how would it be when China and Japan came in collision? The Yellow Empire has ten times as many inhabitants as Japan. That the Chinese are inferior in stamina, courage, skill, patriotism, and all that goes to make a people great, was universally admitted. But the proportion of ten to one is a fearful inequality, and it was not believed by many that the Island Empire could hold its own in a war with China, but would be ground to powder by sheer, overwhelming numbers. China, however, is not a warlike nation, her troops are wretchedly armed, and her administration and government are rotten through and through. There have been some who have spoken of the "Awakening of China," and shuddered over the day when from those four hundred million barbarians should emerge an army tenfold greater than that of Attila, the Scourge of God, and trample all the other peoples of the world under foot. But quality, not quantity, counts in the affairs of this life, and that grizzly phantom can never assume form and substance.

Dearly as Corea hugged the idol of isolation, and viciously as she fought to maintain it, the day was certain to come, and was fast drawing near, when her walls would be battered down, the gates opened and the path cleared to the heart of the Hermit Kingdom or Forbidden People. Like all such ignorant barbarians, they believed that the destruction of the American vessel *General Sherman* and the failure of several other attempts to penetrate beyond their outer confines were due to the valor of the Coreans themselves, who were able to hold the world at a distance.

The trouble between Japan and China rose out of their relations to Corea. We have seen that after the invasion of that unhappy peninsula by Hideyoshi, the Corean king was compelled to send tribute to each of his formidable neighbors. He continued to do so until 1832, when Japan grew tired of the farce and stopped it; for the expense of entertaining the Corean embassy was far greater than the value of the tribute sent. The suzerainty of China over Corea was clearer. The embassies bearing tribute appeared at Peking more regularly than at Yedo. The Corean king received his reign-name from the Chinese Emperor, and went in person outside of Seoul to welcome the Chinese ambassador, one of the most emphatic Asiatic methods of confessing vassalage.

China, however, committed a more serious blunder than Japan by technically renouncing this suzerainty. When the massacre of some French missionaries in Corea in 1866 led their government to demand restitution from China, she replied by denying responsibility. In 1871, an American whaling crew was murdered on the Corean coast, and our country presented a similar claim to China, which replied by asking our government to punish the Coreans and compel them to sign just such a treaty as we wished. The suggestion was carried out by the Americans. China then took the same course with other

KAGOSHIMA BOMBARDED

(An English Fleet Shows the Japanese the Hopelessness of Armed Resistance to European Weapons)

From a drawing made on the spot by Mme. Paule Crampel

IN this patriotic uprising of the Japanese against the foreigners, the tribes or clans of the southern island of Kyushu were specially active. The strait of Shimonoseki, between this island and the more northern ones, was the natural water way for ships bound from Yokohama to China. One of the clans erected batteries along this strait, armed these with modern cannon and began bombarding all foreign ships that passed. An American warship stopped this amusement temporarily, by destroying two Japanese ships which joined in the firing. Then a united fleet from several European countries bombarded the Shimonoseki batteries and destroyed them.

At the same time England decided to exact a more severe punishment, for an attack made in open day upon a party of English travelers near Yokohama. The assailants were known to have been the escort of a Daimio of the island of Kyushu, so an English fleet went to the district of this Daimio, and anchoring off its principal city, Kagoshima, demanded apologies, the accused murderers, and half a million dollars. Failing to get any of these, they laid the city in ruins with their guns. Of course a Japanese city is built chiefly of bamboo and the rebuilding of it is not a heavy task, but the destruction of Kagoshima involved the loss of many lives, and proved conclusively to the Japanese their helplessness against the foreigners.

VIII-54

nations. Japan had special trouble with the Coreans, and had twice to chastise them for assaulting her legation at Seoul. All the Powers treated Corea as an independent state. Still China kept a minister resident at Seoul, and, until July, 1894, this minister was the actual ruler of the Hermit Kingdom.

Rebellions, revolts, massacres, treachery, and intrigue are indigenous to Corea, and, in 1893, one of the periodical insurrections conquered the southern provinces. Failing to obtain redress for grievances, the rebels assailed the government forces the following spring and routed them. The court in its terror bellowed to China for help in subduing its enemies. The request was granted, and, in accordance with a former promise, China notified Japan of her intention to send troops into the peninsula. Japan was still more prompt in sending a considerably larger force to Corea, on the reasonable ground that the safety of her subjects demanded such precaution.

You can understand the delicate situation. Two powerful and bitter rivals were hurrying at the same time armed forces into Corea: it suggested her being caught between the upper and nether millstones. Japan was done with trifling. She had gone through the routine of massacre, fine, promise, apology, over and over again until it had become monotonous. She demanded in the first place a clear explanation from the Corean minister of his kingdom's relationship to China, giving him to understand that Corea could no longer shield its abuses behind Chinese suzerainty. Having tested and proved the immeasurable value of western civilization, Japan proposed to Corea a sweeping reform in its army, finances, laws, and educational system—all of which were to be placed in Japanese hands. The Corean ruler would have almost given his head for the power to say no, but he dared not, and he acquiesced in the greatest indignity ever put upon him.

Japan then asked China to join her in the task of reforming Corea, but China flatly refused, for the very good reason that she as well as all her friends in the Hermit Kingdom were opposed to the change.

Let me mention a peculiar condition of the war in which Corea, Japan, and China soon became involved: all three peoples could understand the written language common to them, but the ordinary spoken tongues of the three were totally different. Of course there were occasional exceptions, where a man was educated, just as many Americans speak also some other language. Bearing this singular fact in mind, you will appreciate some of the difficulties in the triangular contest.

In the preliminary steps, Japan showed to advantage over China. She beat her rival at diplomacy, and soon had troops at Seoul strong enough to hold the capital. She understood the importance of acting promptly. She notified China that her refusal to aid in enforcing the reforms removed all responsibility

from the Japanese government, whatever the consequences might be. At the same time, she warned Corea that the reforms must be carried into effect, otherwise force would be employed.

The crisis came about the middle of July, 1894. On the 18th of that month, Otori, the Japanese minister, was informed by the Corean government that the reforms insisted upon could not be undertaken while so many Japanese troops remained at the capital. The following day, the Chinese minister, who no doubt had been inciting the Coreans to resistance, left Seoul. On the 20th Otori notified the Corean government that if a satisfactory answer to his demands was not returned within three days, Japan would use force to carry out the promised reforms. Since the Coreans objected to the presence of the Japanese troops, the minister reminded them that Chinese forces were also in Corea, and their presence was incompatible with the independence of the kingdom. To this, the Corean king made the plain answer that the Chinese troops were there at his request, and would remain until he asked them to go.

As soon as this reply was received, the Japanese troops acted. The king's palace was attacked, the Coreans were driven out, and the king was made a virtual prisoner, the explanation given him being that the Japanese intended to protect him from the rebels in the provinces and from his other domestic foes. Thus, on the 23d of July, the Japanese became masters of the Corean capital and government, with trifling losses on each side. The haters of change were driven out and the government was placed in the hands of progressive men.

This action of the Japanese reversed the whole situation. The Chinese were no longer friends of the Corean government, but invaders, whom the Japanese were asked to drive out from the seaport of Asan, where they had established themselves. A scuffle at the king's palace had resulted in placing Corea in the hands of Japan. The war with Corea was over. Henceforward it was to be between Japan and China. Both countries understood this before they came to blows, and had been hurrying reinforcements into Corea. In the latter part of July, eleven steamers carrying about nine thousand troops, left Tientsin for the Hermit Kingdom. They took two routes, some going to the Yalu, which is the boundary river of Corea, and some to Asan, to reinforce the small force already there. You must be asked to locate these different places on the map, for in no other way can you clearly understand the military and naval operations that follow.

China had a prodigious army, but it was miserably equipped. An observer says he saw Chinese soldiers on their way to battle armed with bamboo poles, sharpened with ten-penny nails at the top. Others clung to the bow and arrow, and one of their main reliances was to wear masks and to make hideous noises when rushing to the conflict, so as to scare their enemies. These men might

THE FALL OF HITOSUBASHI

(The Shogun is Urged by His Counsellors to Commit Hara-kiri)

From a drawing by the French artist, I. Grepon

WHILE the Daimios had thus accepted the necessity of temporary submission to the foreigners, they could not forgive the Shogun who had first opened their country to the strangers. A new Emperor came to the Japanese throne in 1867, and the Daimios seized the occasion to declare their allegiance to him and their rebellion against the Shogun Hitosubashi. They marched their armies to the national capital of Kyoto, but their military ardor was considerably dashed by the fact that Hitosubashi refused to fight with them, even as he had refused to fight with the foreigners. He offered to resign his post if the country desired it. And when some of his followers insisted on attacking the Daimios, Hitosubashi not only refused to support them in the struggle, but withdrew from Kyoto entirely. His family regarded him as being disgraced and urged him to commit "hara-kiri," the Japanese form of suicide. This ceremonial suicide was only permitted to the military class and was regarded by them as both a duty and an honor, the only proper way of meeting misfortune. Hitosubashi, however, refused to do away with himself or even to look upon his loss of the rank of Shogun as a misfortune. Instead he retired very contentedly to his private estates and there devoted himself to study. More than one of his followers expressed their views of the situation by committing hara-kiri themselves.

No new Shogun succeeded to the ancient office, and the Emperor took control in person.

VIII-55

nave become good soldiers had they been trained and disciplined, but they were coolies hired for the war, and were led by officers who were not only cowards but knew nothing of military science. To rouse them to an effective point, the Chinese government had offered some forty dollars for every Japanese head brought to their leaders. On the other hand, as we know, the Japanese were fiercely patriotic, were carefully drilled and well armed, and, like their officers, were among the bravest of soldiers. It may be safely said that in the whole Japanese army there was not a private who was not ready to die for his country. The Chinese, however, had a powerful navy, and through the training of foreign officers the crews had become skilful. In this respect, it was superior to the navy of Japan: the difference lay in "the men behind the guns."

The plan of the Chinese campaign was a good one. It was intended to concentrate an army on the northern frontier, powerful enough to march southward and drive the Japanese out of the capital, while the Asan force should be able to repel any attack by the Japanese. The indispensable necessity for the success of this campaign was that the mobilization should be rapid. The absence of railways, the miserable military organization, the bad roads, and the national inertia of the Chinese, made such swiftness of action difficult, and China had to place her reliance on the sea for the effective transportation of her troops. Japan, owing to her insular situation, had to do the same. Her forces at Seoul and the Chinese at Asan were a long distance from their bases of operations, and the position of each, therefore, was critical.

Of course, the Japanese government knew when the Chinese transports left Tientsin, and the three swiftest vessels of the Japanese navy were sent out to intercept them. Early on the morning of the 25th, the two Chinese men-of-war were met. Since war had not yet been declared by either nation, the Japanese expected the others to salute their flag, but, to their amazement, this was not done, and the Chinese ships cleared for action. It need not be said that their foes were prompt in imitating them, and in a brief time, the furious battle was on. One of the Chinese men-of-war had her bow gun disabled, and twenty of her crew killed. Riddled with shot, she limped off to Wei-hai-wei. The other was crippled and forced to run into shallow water. Thus the first brush between the two nations proved the decisive superiority of the Japanese. Yet in no subsequent naval engagement did the Chinese display so much boldness as in this one, which is called the battle of Phung Island. They fought against greatly superior forces and showed no inconsiderable skill. Yet when the Chinese captain reached home, where he ought to have been complimented for his bravery, his government beheaded him for cowardice! The principle of that hideous empire is to execute the leader who loses a battle, no matter how

heroically he may fight, nor how hopeless the circumstances under which he is compelled to yield.

While one of the Japanese boats was chasing the Chinese man-of-war that was making for Wei-hai-wei, a Chinese despatch vessel and the British steamer *Kowshing* came in sight. The former was pursued and quickly captured, since it had no power of resistance. The *Kowshing* was taken charge of by the Japanese *Naniwa*, and a terrible tragedy took place, with the loss of more than a thousand lives.

It was yet early in the forenoon, when the *Naniwa* signalled to the *Kowshing* to come to anchor, and after a further exchange of signals, a boat with an officer was sent to the captured steamer. The *Kowshing* proved a British steamer, which had been chartered by the Chinese government to carry troops to Corea. Beside her European crew, she had twelve hundred Chinese troops, and military supplies on board. The Japanese officer asked a few questions, then ordered the captain of the *Kowshing* to follow him, and, without giving an opportunity for anything more to be said, hurried down the side of the ship and was rowed back to the *Naniwa*.

The captain of the *Kowshing* quickly discovered that he could not obey. The Chinese soldiers as well as their officers declared they would die before being taken prisoners. Amid wild excitement, guns and ammunition were distributed, and the privates prepared to fight. This was such mad folly that their officers finally declared they would abandon the ship. The soldiers refused to permit this, and placed guards over them and over the Europeans, with threats of instant death if they attempted to leave the vessel. Amid the hubbub, the captain signalled to the *Naniwa* to send a boat again. This was done, and the situation was explained to the Japanese officer, who, without boarding the vessel, promised to refer the question to his own captain, and was rowed back.

The signal was speedily hoisted: "Leave the ship at once." This was intended for the Europeans, and the captain signalled the reply: "We are not permitted; send a boat." "Cannot send boat," was returned. Then the *Naniwa* steamed forward and, taking a favorable position, discharged a torpedo and two broadsides. The *Kowshing* went to fragments with a tremendous explosion, and all who were not killed were flung into the water. The Europeans leaped overboard and swam for shore amid the bullets that were hurtling all about them. A Japanese boat picked up the captain and several officers; the other Europeans succeeded in reaching land, and a few Chinese who clung to the spars of the *Kowshing* were rescued by a French gunboat the next morning. Altogether more than a thousand people perished. It was a frightful tragedy, yet justified by the laws of war.

LEADERS OF MODERN JAPAN

(The Chief Laborers in the Astonishing Transformation which made Japan a Modern Nation)

Prepared especially for the present series

NOW began the "modernization of Japan," that remarkable work which has in a single generation advanced the country from its position as the most backward and mediæval of nations into a rank among the foremost. The leaders who headed this stupendous effort are here depicted. The young Emperor, Mutsuhito, who came to the throne in 1867, ruled till 1912, and became a real ruler instead of a figurehead. The commanders of his army and navy were the marshals here pictured. And still more important in his counsels were the two notable figures Ito and Inouye. These two were young nobles of the southern island, when the foreigners entered Japan. They came to the bold conclusion that only by studying the strangers in their own lands could Japan really learn how to resist them. But for a Japanese to leave Japan was, under the old policy of seclusion, regarded as a crime deserving death. When Ito and Inouye asked permission of the Shogun to go to Europe, their petition was rejected with horror. So in their resolute patriotism, they escaped from their country secretly and spent years in England as servants.

Returning to Japan just in time for the Daimios' rebellion, these two bold students became leaders in it and were able to guide it along lines of peace and wisdom. But for Ito and Inouye the Daimios would have fought Europe; as it was they sought her friendship instead.

VIII-56

Admiral Ito
Marshal Oyama

Empress Haruko
Marshal Yamagata

Emperor Mutsuhito
Count Inouye

The military situation of the Japanese in Corea was this: The precise position of the northern Chinese army was unknown, but there was no immediate danger from it, and all that was done for the time was to send scouts to watch its movements. The real peril was from the Chinese force at Asan, which was near Seoul on the south. If this were reinforced, the Japanese army would be placed in great danger. It was imperative, therefore, to destroy the enemy before they could be strengthened. Moreover, it was necessary to achieve some striking success in order to hold the Coreans, whose sympathies naturally were with the Chinese. Accordingly, General Oshima, on the 25th of July, left a small detachment to protect Seoul, and with his main force advanced upon Asan. As usual, he moved with great rapidity, and three days later arrived in sight of the Chinese, who abandoned Asan, and took a powerful position near by, at Song-hwan, where they displayed no little skill in entrenching themselves.

Carefully following them up, General Oshima found their position too strong to be attacked in the daytime, and, calling a council of war, it was determined to assault at night. The advance was made with the greatest secrecy. A couple of streams had to be crossed, and this was done with great difficulty. Despite the fine discipline of the troops, many were thrown into confusion, but they pushed on with intrepidity. The forts were stormed at early dawn, and the Chinese, finding themselves hemmed in, fled in a panic.

This was the most important battle thus far. The precise numbers engaged are not known, but it was hardly three thousand on each side. The Japs had six officers and eighty-two men killed, while the deaths of the Chinese are given at five hundred, and they lost eight guns. About half their force escaped, and by a roundabout route joined the Chinese army at Ping-yang, in the north. The Japanese returned to Seoul on the 5th of August, and made a display of the guns, flags, and spoils of war, to convince the Coreans that in clinging to China they were leaning upon a broken reed. It was the first real test of the proficiency of the Japanese after the organization of their military forces on the European system. The result left no doubt of the wisdom in making the change. Many instances of individual bravery were recorded, and the *morale* of the whole army was admirable.

On the 1st of August, China and Japan each formally declared war. These important documents are so characteristic, and withal so brief, that we give them, the first being that issued by Japan:

"We, by the grace of Heaven, Emperor of Japan, seated on a Throne occupied by the same dynasty from time immemorial, do hereby make proclamation to all our loyal and brave subjects, as follows:

"We hereby declare war against China, and we command each and all our competent authorities, in obedience to our wish and with a view to the attain-

JAPAN IN COREA

(The Unwarlike Coreans of Seoul Submit to the Japanese Troops)

From a photograph

JAPAN'S first opportunity to test the value of her far-reaching reforms came in 1894. Her statesmen, looking around them with modern eyes, saw that they needed more room for their people than was afforded by the limited area of their islands. They revived therefore their ancient claim of conquest over the peninsula of Corea, the nearest mainland. They tried to introduce some of their own modernizing reforms into Corea, so that the land might become habitable. The Coreans protested as earnestly as the Japanese themselves had formerly done; they wanted no foreign changes. Japan appealed to China, which also claimed some degree of suzerainty over Corea, to aid in compelling the desired reforms. But China was as much opposed to these as was Corea; neither country was willing to follow Japan's lead in accepting the civilization of the West.

Both China and Japan began sending soldiers to Corea. The Corean king welcomed those of China, but requested Japan to take her troops home again. Instead the Japanese stormed the royal palace in the capital, Seoul, and made the Corean king a prisoner. To this vigorous action the Coreans offered no resistance whatever. They are a most unwarlike race, and the citizens of Seoul obeyed the Japanese troops as submissively as they had previously obeyed the guards of their own ruler. The Corean king was equally obedient, and at the command of his captors, who called themselves "advisers," he requested the Chinese forces to leave his kingdom.

beginning has been bent upon sacrificing peace to the attainment of her sinister object. In this situation, ardent as our wish is to promote the prestige of the country abroad by strictly peaceful methods, we find it impossible to avoid a formal declaration of war against China. It is our earnest wish that by the loyalty and valor of our faithful subjects, peace may soon be permanently restored and the glory of the Empire be augmented and completed.

"Given this 1st day of the eighth month of the 27th year of Meji."

(His Imperial Majesty's Sign-manual.)

Fairness now requires that we should look at the quarrel through the spectacles of the Yellow Empire:

"Corea has been our tributary for the past two hundred and odd years. She has given us tribute all this time, which is a matter known to the world. For the past dozen years or so Corea has been troubled by repeated insurrections, and we, in sympathy with our small tributary, have as repeatedly sent succor to her aid, eventually placing a resident in her capital to protect Corea's interests. In the fourth moon (May) of this year another rebellion was begun in Corea, and the King repeatedly asked again for aid from us to put down the rebellion. We then ordered Li Hung Chang to send troops to Corea; and they having barely reached Yashan the rebels immediately scattered. But the Wojen ("Wojen" is a contemptuous name for the Japanese), without any cause whatever, suddenly sent their troops to Corea, reinforcing them constantly until they have exceeded ten thousand men. In the mean time, the Wojen forced the Corean King to change his system of government, showing a disposition every way of bullying the Coreans.

"It was found a difficult matter to reason with the Wojen. Although we have been in the habit of assisting our tributaries, we have never interfered with their internal government. Japan's treaty with Corea was as one country with another; there is no law for sending large armies to bully a country in this way, and compel it to change its system of government. The various Powers are united in condemning the conduct of the Japanese, and can give no reasonable name for the army she now has in Corea. Nor has Japan been amenable to reason, nor would she listen to the exhortation to withdraw her troops and confer amicably upon what should be done in Corea. On the contrary, Japan has shown herself bellicose without regard to appearances, and has been increasing her forces there. Her conduct alarmed the people of Corea as well as our merchants there, and so we sent more troops over to protect them. Judge of our surprise then when, half-way to Corea, a number of the Wojen ships suddenly appeared, and taking advantage of our unpreparedness, opened fire upon our transports at a spot on the seacoast near Yashan, and damaged them, thus causing us to suffer from their treacherous conduct, which could not

be foretold by us. As Japan has violated the treaties and not observed international laws, and is now running rampant with her false and treacherous actions, commencing hostilities herself, and laying herself open to condemnation by the various Powers at large, we, therefore, desire to make it known to the world that we have always followed the paths of philanthropy and perfect justice throughout the whole complications, while the Wojen, on the other hand, have broken all the laws of nations and treaties, which it passes our patience to bear with. Hence we commanded Li Hung Chang to give strict orders to our various armies to hasten with all speed to root the Wojen out of their lairs. He is to send successive armies of valiant men to Corea in order to save the Coreans from the dust of bondage. We also command the Manchu generals, viceroys, and governors of the maritime provinces, as well as the commander-in-chief of the various armies, to prepare for war and to make every effort to fire on the Wojen ships if they come into our ports, and utterly destroy them. We exhort our generals to refrain from the least laxity in obeying our commands in order to avoid severe punishment at our hands. Let all know this edict as if addressed to themselves individually.

"Respect this!"

If you will look at the map, you will see the port of Gen-san on the northeastern coast of Corea, and that of Chemulpo, or Yensen, on the western coast, nearly opposite Seoul. These were the two ports where Japan began landing her troops for her Corean campaign. Realizing the importance of the task before her, she purchased about fifty vessels during the progress of the war, which provided her with a formidable fleet. A defensive treaty was concluded with Corea which established its independence. The Japanese headquarters were removed for convenience from the imperial palace to Hiroshima, whither the Emperor went and gave all his days and a large part of his nights to the conduct of the war.

For more than six weeks after the mutual declaration of hostilities scarcely anything was done in the way of military operations. The outside world began to think that Japan's vigorous spurt had exhausted her energies, and that the war would flicker out. But her leaders were perfecting their plans of campaign, and the troops which were hurried to the two ports named were intended for the most aggressive kind of work. At the same time, China was moving her armies by sea and land. Those gathered in Manchuria were straggling lazily southward, a portion to Ping-yang, and others to the Yalu, where a second army was mobilizing. The troops that went by sea landed near the mouth of this river.

The first plan of the Chinese campaign, as we have learned, was to push a powerful army by land over the Yalu, while another was to advance northward

[illegible] Chinese refused to evacuate Co[illegible]

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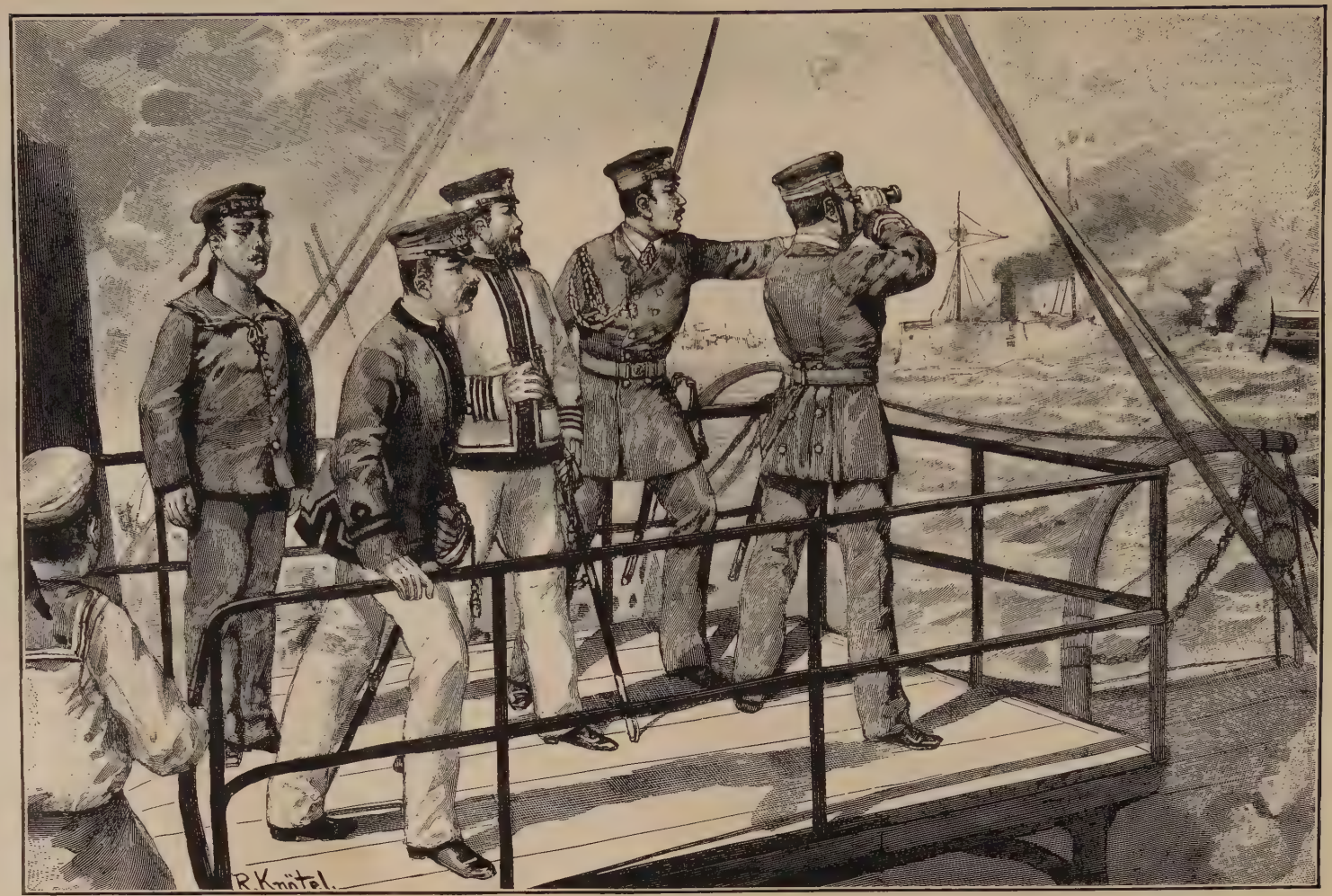
THE WAR WITH CHINA

(A Japanese Warship opens the War by Sinking a Chinese Troop Ship)

From a drawing by the German artist, R. Knoetel

NATURALLY the Chinese refused to evacuate Corea at the command of its helpless king. Instead they hastened to fill the land with their troops. There was as yet no formal declaration of war, but both sides prepared rapidly for attack. Japan was specially determined not to let China send troops to Corea by sea; for the route thus was short and swift, whereas troops sent by land would need many weeks for the journey. So three modern Japanese warships intercepted two Chinese warships convoying the troop ship "Kowshing," which was carrying twelve hundred soldiers to Corea. Which side began the actual fighting is disputed, but the Chinese warships were soon put to flight and the Japanese warship "Naniwa" steamed up to the "Kowshing" and demanded her surrender.

The "Kowshing" was a European ship with European officers, and these endeavored to obey the Japanese command; but the Chinese soldiers aboard refused to surrender and made prisoners of the Europeans. Doubtless they had no real conception of the helplessness of their unarmed and unarmored ship against the guns of the "Naniwa." They expected a hand to hand fight. The Japanese, however, began battering the troopship with long-distance guns and then sent a well-aimed torpedo, which blew her to pieces. This was the first notice to the world that Japan had learned to use, and meant to use, modern weapons of death to their fullest effect.



VIII-60

from Asan. The destruction of the latter defeated the campaign from the south. It, therefore, remained for China to concentrate her mongrel forces in the north, and, marching down the peninsula, sweep the Japanese out of Corea. To frustrate this advance, the Japanese adopted the simple policy of converging their armies from the south and east upon Ping-yang, on the Tatung River, where the supreme struggle would take place. The army was directed by Field Marshal Yamagata, who planned that the different divisions should reach Ping yang about the middle of September.

The advances of these divisions were attended with trying difficulties, for, as we know, Corea is a wretched country, with poor roads, and the invaders had to leave their base far to the rear. But they moved with wonderful perseverance, fortitude and skill, and carried out the work assigned to them with astonishing precision. The total strength of all their divisions was about fourteen thousand men.

The city of Ping-yang is one of the most important in Corea, and contains perhaps twenty thousand inhabitants. Nature has united with art in making it exceptionally strong. The Tatung River winds partly around three sides, and its banks are steep and well adapted for defence. The city is further surrounded by high massive walls, which the Chinese forces greatly improved. The total strength of their army was some thirteen thousand men. It would seem that they ought to have been able to hold the city against at least fifty thousand men. In truth, the Chinese leaders boasted they could do this, and the Japanese themselves were surprised by the strength of the fortifications, especially of the chief bulwark, Fort Botandai.

Skirmishing went on from the 12th to the 15th of September. On the latter day, with the first streakings of dawn, a tremendous cannonade was opened by the Japanese. The Chinese lost no time in replying, but their fire could not compare in accuracy with that of their assailants, who slowly pushed on, only to meet with a determined resistance from the finest of the troops in the forts. As the light increased, the Japanese were revealed on the open ground in front of the forts without the slightest protection. Spurred on by their officers, who recklessly exposed themselves, they charged with the most desperate bravery, and captured some of the outworks. The Chinese, however, maintained their destructive fire and the assailants toppled over like tenpins. The Japanese exhausted their ammunition, and had to hunt for cartridges on the bodies of their killed and wounded comrades, till finally that source also gave out, and they were left with only their bayonets to meet the awful crossfire of the forts, which had to be faced so long as the attack was maintained.

With a daring that was sublime, a fresh body of Japanese troops made a furious attempt to storm the main fort, but the earthworks were so steep and

THE FIRST LAND BATTLE

(The Japanese Rout the Chinese by a Sudden Attack at Song-hwan)

From a painting by the American artist, W. Montague Cary

IMMEDIATELY after the first naval conflict the little Japanese army which had taken possession of Seoul marched out to meet the Chinese troops, who might be preparing to besiege them in the capital. They found a strong force of Chinese advancing against them. These hastily entrenched themselves at a little place called Song-hwan, not far from Seoul. Here took place the first battle of this bloody war. It was not a large affair, possibly there were three thousand soldiers on each side; but it gave picturesque evidence of the different caliber of the opposing nations.

The Japanese crept forward on the enemy's entrenchments during the night and attacked them suddenly at dawn. In some places they had actually scaled the entrenchments before the Chinese gathered to the defense. Though thus surrounded the Chinese fought bravely. They still, however, relied chiefly upon the noise of their guns, firing them wildly in the air to terrify the foe, and shouting meanwhile and clashing their ancient shields and gongs. The Japanese fired to kill, and they advanced and charged as steadily and calmly as if upon parade. As a natural result they captured or destroyed fully half the Chinese force and scattered the rest in flight. The Japanese lost less than a hundred men. The result of the battle was to place the Japanese in control of all southern Corea, including its capital and its king.

VIII-161

firing at the little group striving with such desperation to unbar the opening. There were enough of the defenders to overwhelm and cut down every one of the Japanese, who were like rats caught in a trap, unless they could unfasten the great door. The Chinese opened fire, killed one of the little group and wounded another, when at the last moment the gate gave way, swung inward, and admitted the astonished and eager Japanese on the outside.

The capture of the fort on the hill and the taking of the city gate virtually decided the fate of Ping-yang. Soon after, white flags were seen fluttering from the walls. General Tachimi rode forward on his horse to learn the meaning of the display, but he and the Chinese could not understand each other. Then he wrote out his queries, and an unsatisfactory reply was returned by the Corean officials. General Tachimi thought matters looked suspicious, and amid a severe storm, which just then broke, he withdrew his troops. The display of the white flags was to secure delay. Many of the Chinese leaders had been opposed to making any defence at all, and, in the fighting, they had lost their bravest and most skilful officer. When night descended, the Chinese horde swarmed out of the city, bent only on escape. But their foes were waiting for them. The slaughter that followed was fearful, and lasted through that awful night. When the sun finally rose on the dreadful scene not a Chinese soldier was in Ping-yang. The cheering victors marched through the different gates and occupied the city. There seemed to be no end to the spoils captured, among which were thirty-five cannon, and a thousand magazine rifles and breech-loaders. The Chinese losses were fully two thousand killed, many wounded, and six hundred prisoners; that of the Japanese was eight officers killed, twenty-seven wounded, one hundred and fifty-four soldiers killed and four hundred and eleven wounded. These figures were compiled so carefully by the Japanese that there can be little doubt of their accuracy. The losses of the Chinese are also taken from the estimates of the victors, who have always shown painstaking attempts to be correct.

This victory was of the greatest importance, for Ping-yang was the strongest city in Corea, and the Chinese army that was to drive the Japanese out of the kingdom had been virtually annihilated. The Chinese did not offer any further resistance, but retreated beyond the Yalu to defend their own country. The Corean campaign was ended; and now for the Yellow Empire itself.

THE JAPANESE FLEET ENTERING PORT ARTHUR

Chapter CLIII

THE CAMPAIGN IN CHINA

IT must not be supposed that the Japanese navy was idle. We have learned of the vigorous steps taken to strengthen it, and these armed ships were employed during the operations described in patrolling the Corean coasts and protecting the transports. The Chinese fleets were engaged on similar duty, and the conditions favored a naval collision.

On the morning of September 17, the Japanese fleet sighted that of the enemy off the mouth of the Yalu River, and Admiral Ito promptly prepared his vessels for action. He had about ten fighting ships, as did also the Chinese. The latter were ranged in a single line, with the weaker vessels on the wings. Admiral Ito arranged his fleet in a single column, with the faster ones, the "Flying Squadron," in the lead. The Chinese opened fire at a distance of seven thousand yards, but the Japanese waited until within half that range. They seemed to be heading for the Chinese centre, but the "Flying Squadron" diverged and with increased speed passed the right wing of the Chinese. The others followed, and before they had all rounded the weak end of the enemy's line one of the Chinese vessels was in flames.

Admiral Ito's plan was, through his superior speed, to circle about the enemy's vessels, pouring a destructive fire into the least powerful and keeping at a safe distance from the heavier guns. This, if carried out, would have destroyed the Chinese fleet in short order, but two more Chinese vessels ap-

PING-YANG

(The Assault of the Japanese upon the Main Chinese Army in Corea)

From a drawing by the German artist, R. Knoetel

ACTUAL war between China and Japan was declared in August, 1894. The Japanese forces were placed under Japan's general-in-chief, Marshal Yamagata. After six weeks of preparation he marched northward from Seoul to drive the enemy out of Corea. The Chinese had gathered their forces at Ping-yang, the principal city in northern Corea. Ping-yang is a strongly walled city surrounded on three sides by a river. The Chinese had also built numerous forts around it; and they boasted that they could hold the place against all the armies of Japan.

As a matter of fact the opposing forces were still small, neither army amounting to more than fifteen thousand men. The Chinese were awaiting reinforcements, with which they meant to march southward and drive their foes out of Corea. Now, however, the Chinese were to fight behind their strongest fortifications. There was little tactical skill in the battle. The Japanese attacked in force from the one side of Ping-yang not protected by the river. With resolute daring they stormed one after another five forts which blocked their advance. The resistance of the Chinese was stubborn but ineffective; many of them had only pikes for weapons or bows and arrows; those who had guns fired wildly. Before night fell the Japanese had even captured one of the massive gates of the city itself.

VIII-62

peared hurrying up with six torpedo boats to take part in he fight. Without the least hesitation, the "Flying Squadron" headed for the new enemies, who with equal promptness turned and fled, having little stomach for the fight. Then the pursuers returned. It is not our province to describe this remarkable naval battle in detail. The Chinese fought bravely, and Admiral Ito displayed consummate generalship in meeting and overcoming the continual shifting of conditions.

The contest off the mouth of the Yalu is memorable in more than one respect. It was the greatest naval conflict of the war between China and Japan, and it holds the unique distinction of being the first engagement between two fleets fully provided with all modern inventions and appliances. Admiral Ito proved himself a naval genius, for he saved his three weak vessels, which interfered with his evolutions, and, though he had no torpedo boats, he destroyed four of the Chinese vessels, or about one-third of their fighting force. It must be remembered, too, that his meeting with the enemy was unexpected, and he had to form his plans on the spur of the moment. Moreover, he was without any historical precedent to help him in the superb evolutions which saved his feeble vessels, while steadily pressing the enemy to the wall.

Besides the four formidable ships lost by the Chinese, a fifth ran aground in the flight near Talien Bay, and was blown up to save her falling into the hands of the Japanese, who lost no vessels at all. Admiral Ito, the little swarthy house servant of a few years before, stood up before the great Powers of the world, and gave the first lesson in the science of modern naval warfare. He made himself master of the Yellow Sea, and the mighty Chinese Empire could send no more troops by water.

The Japanese army rested only a short time after the capture of Ping-yang, when it pushed northward toward the Yalu, which, as you remember, forms the boundary between China and Corea. In the course of a month the First Army, as it was called, commanded by Marshal Yamagata, was on the southern bank of the river. It was arranged that the invasion of China by this army should be simultaneous with that of the Second Army, the advance of the two being such that in case of peril one could go to the help of the other.

The breadth of the Yalu makes it a strong natural defence, and the Chinese commander-in-chief, General Sung, chose it as his first line. He made his headquarters at the little town of Chiu-lien-cheng, on the northern bank, while Yamagata placed himself at Wi-ju, on the southern shore. Having reached the river, the next thing was to cross it, for the Japanese were not the ones to remain idle. Just before daylight, on the 25th of October, one of the divisions passed over, and was quickly followed by others. Although the Chinese had been building fortifications for a long time and were prepared to offer a stub-

THE FLIGHT OF THE CHINESE

(The Chinese in Night and Storm Seek to Escape from Ping-yang)

From the Japanese official pictures of the War

THE night which followed the day of battle at Ping-yang was even more terrible and deadly than the day had been. The disorganized Chinese found themselves penned within the walls of Ping-yang. They no longer hoped even to make a successful resistance behind Ping-yang's walls; for had not the foe driven them from their strongest forts. The night closed round in thunder and storm; and under cover of Nature's uproar, the Chinese threw open the gates of Ping-yang and fled, hoping to escape northward back to China.

But the Japanese were on watch. The storm had not driven them to shelter; indeed they had no shelter. The mad rush of the Chinese was met by ready troops. There was no battle; for the despairing Chinamen thought only of flight. The Japanese fired at them as they swept past and killed as many as possible; but there was no way of stopping that terrified rush. The bulk of the fugitives broke through the Japanese lines and fled in disorganized masses back to China. The Japanese commander promptly led his victorious army northward till he came to the Yalu River, the broad stream which forms the boundary between Corea and the Chinese province of Manchuria.

VIII-63

landed and was advancing on Port Arthur, should be ready to co-operate in the northward march.

It must be borne in mind that, though the campaigns of the Japanese were unvaryingly successful, yet the soldiers were called upon to endure great hardships. In that wretched country it was a task of enormous difficulty to bring forward supplies, and officers and privates were more than once in a famishing condition. But all bore privations cheerfully, and some of the exploits of the soldiers were of thrilling heroism. Thus in one of the charges a captain had his horse killed under him, and was wounded to the point of helplessness. Private Tio helped the officer to mount his own horse, led him out of danger, and then dropped dead, having been mortally wounded before he dashed to the assistance of his leader. In many instances, when the Japanese were unable to rescue their wounded, the latter committed suicide to escape torture at the hands of the Chinese.

The Chinese supposed that an immediate advance would be made by the First Army upon the city of Mukden, the ancient capital of the Manchu dynasty, and held in special reverence because of its imperial ancestral tombs. To prevent its capture, they kept a large army between the city and the Japanese. But although the latter purposely encouraged the impression, they had no intention for the time of pressing farther northward. They aimed simply to keep open their communications by repelling any attack from the north. Many wondered at the delay of the Japanese, but it was in conformity with the plan of their generals, who understood the military situation better than outsiders. A civil administration was organized in many places in Manchuria, with the civil employees brought over from Japan.

As we have learned, the Second Army was prepared for active military operations. The mobilization proceeded rapidly, and on the 27th of September the whole force was quartered at Hiroshima, which, it will be remembered, was the imperial headquarters. Marshal Oyama, minister of war, was made commander-in-chief. The objective point was Port Arthur, an impregnable harbor and fortress, made so at immense expense by German and French engineers. It stands on the southeastern point of the Regent's Sword, or Lia-tung Promontory, at the entrance to the Gulf of Pe-chi-li, while on the opposite promontory is the fortress of Wei-hai-wei. The Japanese determined to reduce each in turn.

Shallow water compelled the landing to be made at the mouth of a small stream a hundred miles from Port Arthur. The Chinese ships offered not the slightest interference, and the troops disembarked on the 24th of October. Their position was favorable in the highest degree, for their invincible fleet removed all danger from the sea, while by occupying the neck of the peninsula,

THE FIRST GREAT MODERN NAVAL BATTLE

(The Japanese Fleet defeats that of China at the Yalu River)

From a painting by the German artist, L. Arenhold

THE Chinese-Japanese war produced the first naval battle between fleets of war-vessels of the modern ironclad type. The Chinese navy was in much better condition than the army, having been thoroughly organized and trained by European officers. The Japanese, on the contrary, while studying European methods, had entrusted the actual handling of their ships to their own officers. Hence many foreign critics regarded the Chinese navy as the superior.

Two fleets of about ten warships each and nearly equal strength met in September off the mouth of the Yalu River, where each was seeping to aid its country's military movements. The Japanese commander was Admiral Ito, the remarkable statesman who had prepared Japan's constitution, and who as a youth had taken a leading part in her great revolution. Ito attacked the enemy in single column, his strongest ship in front. During the battle a Chinese reinforcement came up in the shape of a squadron of torpedo boats. Admiral Ito at once turned from his main attack and led his charging column head on against the torpedo boats. This proved too much for the courage of the Chinese; instead of rushing on with their tiny craft, sacrificing themselves in destroying their foes, they turned and fled. Then Ito returned to the main attack. Five of the Chinese ships were destroyed; the remainder fled. Admiral Ito's fleet were left masters of the Eastern ocean.

VIII-64

others. These batteries had fifty-seven guns, some quick-firing, and a number were provided with disappearing carriages. The Chinese Admiral Ting lay at anchor in the spacious harbor with his nine warships, six small gunboats, and eleven torpedo boats, all imprisoned by two torpedo booms spanning the entrance for the purpose of keeping out the Japanese fleet. In order to secure undisputed control of the Gulf of Pe-chi-li, and render the fleet useless, the Japanese determined to capture this seemingly impregnable place. It should be added that the ten thousand Chinese who manned the forts and ships were inadequate in numbers to do so effectively, even had they possessed the fighting spirit, which was totally lacking.

Marshal Oyama's invading army of 27,000 men landed January 23, just south of the extreme promontory of Shan-tung and about forty miles from Wei-hai-wei, toward which it advanced in two columns. A weak resistance was made at first, but soon the garrisons began fleeing pell mell, not halting long enough to render their guns useless. A furious storm on February 1 compelled the Japanese to suspend operations, and Admiral Ting took advantage of the opportunity to land a number of sailors, who destroyed all the guns in the western forts. By this precaution, he saved the islands and his own ships from bombardment.

The Japanese seized the forts, but their situation was by no means satisfactory, for their heaviest guns in the eastern batteries could not reach the anchorage, and the torpedo booms, covered by the island forts, shut out the invading fleet. Thus the Chinese, so long as matters remained thus, could make the town exceedingly hot for any enemy that occupied it.

In the darkness of the night of February 4, ten Japanese torpedo boats removed undetected an end of one of the booms, and, silently entering the harbor, sunk a leading warship. Consternation followed, and hundreds of shot pattered around the skurrying little craft, of which two were sunk and two disabled, though only fourteen men were lost.

This daring exploit was repeated by five boats the next night, when, without the loss of a man, a transport and two warships were destroyed These amazing successes demoralized the Chinese, who were thrown into a panic. Two steam launches and all their torpedo boats made a scramble to get out of the habor on the morning of the 8th, but every one was captured, sunk, or run ashore. On the day following, one of the Japanese cruisers was sunk by shells from the enemy's forts.

Admiral Ting was left with only four fighting vessels and the Liu-kung forts, and there was not an earthly chance for him. He was aware of it, but grimly resolved to fight against hope. Admiral Ito and Marshal Oyama, admiring the spirit of the brave veteran, magnanimously advised him to surrender

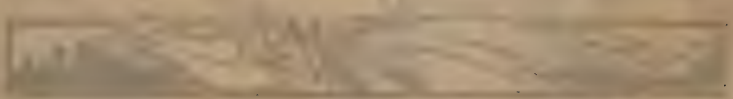
and take refuge in Japan until peace was concluded. Admiral Ito, in a remarkable letter to his enemy, tried to persuade him to this course, by picturing the good he could do his country in effecting military reforms.

Admiral Ting knew that he must fail in battle, and that China would demand his life as a forfeit, but nothing could shake his heroic loyalty. He made no reply to the communication of Admiral Ito, but fought bravely until nothing remained but the surrender of his fragment of a fleet and the forts. This was effected February 12, and then Admiral Ting, with several of his leading military and naval officers, committed suicide.

The captors destroyed all the land forts at Wei-hai-wei, but a force held Liu-kung island and anchorage until the close of the war. This victory and the successes in Sheng-king placed Japan in a situation to dictate terms of peace. Other military movements took place, the most important being an expedition to the Pescadores, which reduced the forts on Pang-hu, the chief island, and secured a base for operations against Formosa.

Meanwhile, negotiations were under way for the esablishment of peace, but the court at Peking acted so trickily, that the Japanese minister refused to see their agent, who was not provided with proper credentials. Finally, Viceroy Li Hung Chang, who had been degraded because of disasters at the beginning of the war, was restored to honor, through the efforts of the Empress Dowager, and sent to Shimonoseki, with plenary powers. He landed there on March 20, with his suite, numbering one hundred and thirty-two persons, and including General John W. Foster, ex-Secretary of State of the United States, as his confidential adviser.

In China's story we have told how Li's attempted assassination by a Japanese fanatic was the means of securing better terms for his country than could have been gained otherwise by one of the most astute statesmen of modern times. An armistice was granted March 30, 1895, and made permanent by the signing of a treaty of peace, which was finally ratified at Chifu, May 8, 1895. Its terms granted a heavy indemnity, ceded to Japan the promontory of Liatung, Formosa, and the Pescadores, and acknowledged the independence of Corea.



THE JAPANESE IN CHINA

(Crossing from Corea They Defeat the Main Chinese Army)

From a drawing by the German artist, Ferdinand Linder

AFTER the naval victory of Admiral Ito, the Japanese army, under Marshal Yamagata, began the invasion of China. Every effort was made to deceive the enemy as to just where the Japanese would cross the Yalu. Then when the opposing troops were widely scattered up and down the river, the Japanese crossed suddenly in boats, almost unopposed. The scattered Chinese gathered hastily at the little town of Chin-lien-cheng; and here they were attacked by the advancing Japanese. The battle was a repetition of that of Ping-yang. The Chinese resistance was stubborn but wholly ineffective, and nightfall found them driven back within the main fortifications of Chin-lien-cheng. From these they fled in the night, but this time they were not surrounded and their flight was unopposed.

This was the last resolute fight made by the Chinese. The regular army of the Empire was here broken and dispersed. The Chinese made hurried efforts to gather new recruits, but these were as unwilling fighters as they were untrained. The Japanese pushed onward through these swarming multitudes as steadily and as successfully as the best European troops could have done. China's one great fortress between the Yalu frontier and her capital Peking, lay on the strong peninsula of Port Arthur. The Japanese army advanced to this place, the "Gibraltar of the East," and carried it by storm in November, 1894.

VIII-65

JAPANESE CELEBRATING THE COREAN TRIUMPH

Chapter CLIV

THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR

[*Authorities:* In these modern days, the Press gives us a faithful record of the important happenings in every part of the world. This fact was strikingly illustrated in the late Russo-Japanese War, and we have drawn fully upon the accounts furnished by the American and foreign journalists, who included some of the keenest observers and the ablest literary men of the times.]

A MOMENTOUS era thus came in the history of the Far East—one that profoundly interested and in a certain sense mystified Europe. In the eternal jealousy and wrangling over China, these Powers had never looked upon Japan as a possible factor in the dispute; but there she was, leaping at one bound from obscurity to a front rank among the world's Powers. Had there been an opportunity for intervention by the European nations, they would have interened; but the war was too bewilderingly swift to give the Powers opportunity to adjust their jealousies so as to act. Before they could move, the struggle was over.

Their jealousy was now directed toward Japan, and it was felt that she must be curbed lest her success should carry her too far. Russia, France, and Germany formed a coalition to prevent any disturbance of the integrity of China and to compel Japan to surrender a part of the spoils to which she was entitled by her triumph. Great Britain earned the eternal gratitude of Japan by refusing to join the alliance. Had any one Power alone attempted to intervene, Japan would have gone to war with her; but, bitterly humiliating as it was to bow to the coalition, she was compelled to do so. Upon being "advised" to withdraw the demand for the Lia-tung Promontory, including the fortress of Port Arthur, she did so with the best grace possible, but the sting remained.

The anger of Japan was directed specially against Russia, which seized the fortress of Port Arthur and virtually occupied Manchuria. Convinced that, sooner or later, war was inevitable, Japan industriously made ready for the struggle. In all conflicts between nations, an immeasurable advantage rests with the one most fully prepared. In this instance, the advantage was overwhelmingly with Japan, for Russia, expecting nothing in the nature of war, made no preparation for it. Japan demanded that Russia should evacuate Manchuria in accordance with the decree of the Manchurian Convention, which named October 8th, 1903, as the date for such withdrawal. Instead of complying with this demand, Russia remained planted in Manchuria and extended her outposts across the Yalu River into Corea itself. Japan feared that unless she checked Russia's aggressive expansion she would be overborne and in the end crushed by that mighty Power.

The Czar, Nicholas II., lacks the fixity of purpose which should characterize all rulers, and it is to be regretted that he has been under the influence of the Grand Ducal Party, who have shown themselves anything but friends of the Empire. Admiral Alexieff, the representative of this coterie, was made Governor-General of the Russian possessions in the Far East, where, with a view of advancing the fortunes of his friends and himself, he made no secret of his intention of provoking war with Japan and bringing her to her knees.

Japan protested to St. Petersburg, and, failing to accomplish anything satisfactory thereby, recalled her minister from Russia, February 6th, 1904. Such summary action means war, and Japan, now fully ready, was prompt in striking the first blow.

Her main fleet consisted of six modern battle-ships, a number of cruisers, and a strong flotilla of torpedo-boats and destroyers, under Admiral Togo. Two days after the severance of diplomatic relations, he attacked the Russian naval force at Port Arthur. Two battle-ships and a cruiser were torpedoed in Chemulpo Harbor, Corea, and the following day a decisive blow was inflicted upon the finest squadron of Russia, which was completely surprised, as it lay carelessly at anchor in the unprotected roadstead outside of Port Arthur harbor.

Although Japan's supremacy on the sea was thus established, it was necessary to seal up the powerful Russian fleet within the harbor, in order to prevent it from interfering with the landing of the Japanese army. Three sorties were made from Port Arthur, but none was successful. Japan had gained her purpose and was at liberty to land her troops unmolested in Corea or elsewhere. There was no longer any danger of a Russian descent upon Nippon.

Admiral Makaroff was incredibly careless in allowing the Russian squadron to lie in an open roadstead at night, but he acted bravely and with skill. On April 13th his flagship *Petropaulovsk* struck one of his own mines and went

CAPTURE OF WEI-HAI-WEI

(The Landing of Japanese Forces Beneath the Chinese Forts)

From a painting by the American artist, W. Montague Cary

AFTER the storming of Port Arthur there seemed nothing to prevent the Japanese from marching right onward and seizing the Chinese capital of Peking. But the policy of the Japanese has always been one of sureness rather than of brilliancy. There was still one powerful Chinese stronghold remaining, and they would not advance while it lay threatening their rear. This formidable fortress was Wei-hai-wei, built by the Chinese for the defense of the approach to Peking by the southern coast, as Port Arthur defended the northern shores. The chief defenses of Wei-hai-wei lay on islands unassailable from land; and in its harbor were gathered all the remaining ships of the Chinese navy. The Japanese fleet transported troops across the sea and landed them on the mainland just beyond the frowning cliffs of the Wei-hai-wei forts; but there seemed no way by which the fleet could penetrate the harbor guarded as it was by massive booms and forts and many ships.

Japanese torpedo boats solved the problem of the assault. They slipped into the strongly guarded harbor at night and assailed the Chinese warships. Some of the tiny assailants were destroyed; but for every one thus lost they managed to blow up a Chinese battleship. After two nights of such warfare several of the remaining Chinese ships burst out of the harbor in flight. They were captured or destroyed. After that, Wei-hai-wei was soon driven to surrender.

VIII-66

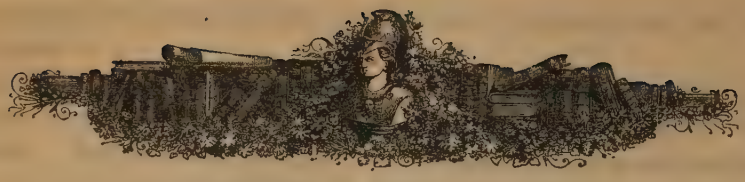
down, carrying the whole staff and crew, 700 men in all, including the gallant admiral. Even Japan expressed sympathy for the loss of the brave officer.

Manchuria was still in the possession of Russia. She had been pouring reinforcements over the railway line for months. Besides the formidable force thus gathered, General Sassulitch had an army of 20,000 men on the banks of the Yalu, waiting to prevent the passage of the stream by the Japanese, who, with no opposition, had occupied Seoul, and now advanced northward under General Kuroki to co operate by a flank movement from the east with the main attack. This was to be made as soon as the ice melted and the Russian fleet was bottled up in Port Arthur. Kuroki outwitted Sassulitch, and while holding his attention upon a point seventeen miles distant, threw a division across the Yalu at Wiju, April 30th. The next day Sassulitch was routed with the loss of 5,000 men and 28 guns, while Japan, with casualties only one-fifth as great, was firmly planted on Manchurian soil.

Sassulitch retreated toward the main Russian army, near Liao-yang, hotly pursued by Kuroki, who threatened the communications of any Russian advance which should attempt to attack the Japanese armies landing on the peninsula. The Russians, who were loosely distributed through the south of Manchuria, were placed in imminent danger, for they could offer no effective resistance to the invaders. They fortified Niu-chwang against expected assault, abandoned it and then occupied it again. General Kuropatkin decided to concentrate his forces at Liao-yang, leaving General Stoessel, with some 38,000 men, to defend Port Arthur.

The confidence in the impregnability of this famous fortress seemed warranted, and the most sanguine of Japan's friends hardly believed its capture possible. Meanwhile, the single railway line across Siberia, which was more effective than generally supposed, was pushed to the limit in bringing reinforcements and supplies to the main army under Kuropatkin.

Southern Manchuria being thus left open for Japanese operations, they were set on foot with characteristic energy and skill. The plan of campaign had been carefully thought out and was pushed to a conclusion with the relentless accuracy of a mathematical demonstration. In the latter part of May, General Oku, commanding the second or Liao-tung army, landed from the Elliot Islands, ready to support Kuroki, or to seize the Liao-tung Peninsula, as soon as the Corean army had established itself beyond the Yalu. The Port Arthur defences, which now reached as far as Nanshan on the north, consisted of an elaborate system of redoubts and intrenchments connected by almost endless entanglements of barbed wire. Six days' persistent assault, terminating May 26th, drove in the Russian lines. Seventy-eight guns were captured, and the glacis cleared and made coverless. The courage, skill, and devotion of the Japanese,



CHINA SUES FOR PEACE

(The Embassy Under Li Hung Chang Comes to Tokio Asking Peace)

After a drawing by the German artist, John Schoenberg

AFTER the fall of Wei-hai-wei, China admitted her helplessness to check the Japanese advance, and asked for peace. Her foremost statesman, Li Hung Chang, was despatched to Tokio to arrange what terms he could. China regarded the mere sending of this high official as a vast concession. Indeed she sent at first a lesser man of no rank, but the Japanese refused to treat with any one but the chief minister of the Empire. So the celebrated Li came and presented himself before the Mikado.

So severe were the demands of the Japanese, that Li refused them flatly, declaring it would be better for China just to let the invaders go on ravaging the land, until they exhausted themselves and their forces wasted away in its vast interior provinces. At this juncture a fortunate accident occurred. A Japanese fanatic attacked and wounded the Chinese envoy. The Mikado and his advisers were profuse in apologies, and made this an excuse for modifying their terms to such as Li was willing to accept. China yielded Corea to Japan. She also yielded all the region around Port Arthur, thus giving her rival a secure footing within her borders. The island of Formosa was also given to Japan and a heavy money indemnity promised her. What Li chiefly saved for his country was the province of Manchuria, the ancient home of the Manchu Emperors, which had been included along with many other items in Japan's first demands.

VIII-67

fortifications. The struggle was fearful beyond description and the slaughter appalling, but the skill with which Kuropatkin extricated his army from what seemed a hopeless situation won the praise of all military critics. He lost 25,000 and the Japanese 20,000 men. The latter pressed the assaults to the limit of human endurance, and once a resistless charge by General Nodzu was all that saved the Japanese from being forced from the field.

A month's relaxation followed, during which reinforcements were hurried to both armies, who prepared for another death grapple. The discontent in Russia became so deep, despite the efforts to suppress the news of disasters, that revolution was threatened and numerous bloody outbreaks occurred. There had not been a solitary Russian victory, and, in order to restore public confidence at home, a fatal order was sent to Kuropatkin to end the period of inaction and, no matter how great the loss of life involved, to press the enemy. A bombastic Imperial decree was published, against Kuropatkin's own judgment, October 2d.

The result of this advance, which consisted of ten days of incessant fighting, was the defeat of the Russians at all points. Their losses were over sixty thousand men and forty-eight guns. The casualties on the side of the Japanese were about one-fourth as great. This great battle, known as Sha-ho, led the Japanese to decide to make no further advance until the close of the Arctic-Manchurian winter. No important engagement took place until the close of February, 1905.

It will be remembered that Port Arthur had been left to take care of itself. Kuropatkin and Stackelberg had each made an abortive attempt to relieve it. The formidable task of its capture was entrusted to General Nogi. It is now certain that whatever credit is due for the defence of this fortress belonged to Stoessel's chief of staff, Kondrachenko, who used every possible means and device to check the Japanese assault. For days and weeks the fighting was of the most terrific nature. Many times the piles of Japanese dead insulated the network of wires over which their living comrades charged. Both sides employed guns larger than were ever before used in siege operations. Nogi and his soldiers would not be denied. They had had their orders and would carry them out if in doing so every man was called to give up his life. Foot by foot they forced their way in, and positions were captured and recaptured again and again. The famous eminence known as 203 Mètre Hill was wrenched from the Japanese before they could establish themselves. The dauntless Chief of Staff Kondrachenko was killed by the explosion of a shell, and a weakness in the defence immediately showed itself. On November 30th the Japanese captured 203 Mètre Hill again and held it. Among the slain was General Nogi's second son, his other boy having already given his life for his country.

This last captured hill commanded all the harbor of Port Arthur. The Japanese turned their guns upon the war-ships representing the last of Russia's sea power in the East, and leisurely sent them to the bottom, one after the other. Admiral Togo then steamed away to meet the Baltic squadron, which, amid a flourish of trumpets, had sailed for Asia about the middle of October. Before the hostile fleets met, Port Arthur had surrendered. The situation of General Stoessel had become so hopeless that, to save the useless effusion of blood, he made an unconditional surrender of the fortress on January 1, 1905.

Then came the final great land battle in Manchuria. Marshal Oyama commanding the whole Japanese army advanced against the huge Russian force in Mukden (February 25th). At Putiloff Hill, south of Mukden, Kuropatkin was assailed with such vigor that he felt certain the attack was intended to mask a main assault on one of his flanks. Convinced that his eastern ranks were imperilled, he moved his reserves from Mukden in that direction. But once more he was outwitted. The supreme task had been given to Nogi and his Port Arthur veterans. Cutting loose from the main body, the Third Army under Nogi had swept around the Russians from the west, gained a position behind Mukden and now attacked the Russians from the rear. Thus enveloped, Kuropatkin, on March 11th, telegraphed to St. Petersburg that his army was surrounded and helpless.

Nevertheless the Russians made a desperate effort to break through the toils before Nogi could intrench himself in their rear. With Japanese cannon pouring fire on them from either side, they marched out of Mukden and fought their way northward along the line of the railroad. The Japanese charged down from the hills repeatedly, but could never stop that great flowing river of men. Of half a million Russian troops, a little more than half thus forced their way out of the Japanese trap at Mukden, and escaped to the city of Harbin in the far north. The remainder of the Russian force were killed or captured. Yet this tremendous Japanese victory was only won at terrible cost; and while Japan still hesitated whether to cheer or weep, the long heralded Russian fleet finally arrived from Europe.

The Russian Admiral Rojestvensky attempted to force his way through the narrow straits between Corea and Japan. Admiral Togo with the Japanese fleet was awaiting him there, and on May 27th made a resistless attack upon the Russian fleet. The shells of his battleships and the terrible assaults of his torpedo-boats and destroyers crumpled up the Russian fleet as if it were so much pasteboard. The annals of naval warfare contain the record of no more crushing triumph. Every ship of Rojestvensky's fleet was either sunk or captured, with the exception of three cruisers which escaped to Manila and

THE FIRST SEAFIGHT WITH RUSSIA

(Japanese Torpedo Boats Assail the Russians in Port Arthur)

After a drawing by Otto Kircher

JAPAN attacked Russia in Asia in 1904. There can be no disputing that Russian arrogance had pressed the Japanese to the point where they either had to fight or yield all claim to be considered a "power" in the East. Russia had extended her control over all the great northern province of Manchuria. Through this she began building a railroad to connect Siberia with her new Chinese stronghold of Port Arthur. She also began plans for seizing Corea. The Japanese remonstrated in vain. Russia's only definite response was to prepare a large fleet to be sent to the East, where she already had ships almost equalling those of Japan. So the Japanese, having exhausted every diplomatic means of securing redress, broke off all negotiations with Russia and attacked her Eastern possessions before the new fleet could arrive.

The first decisive blow of this stupendous war was delivered by the Japanese torpedo boats. They stole by night into Port Arthur's harbor. The Russians, not supposing Japan would dare such an attack, were engaged in idle revelry. The torpedo boats succeeded in seriously damaging three of the huge Russian warships; then the tiny assailants fled before a storm of shot, and most of them escaped. The Russian fleet was so crippled that it was unable to leave the harbor to attack the Japanese. Thus the latter held control of the sea and were able to dictate that the fighting should take place in Manchuria rather than in Japan, whither a Russian fleet would have carried the war.

VIII-72

were disarmed, and two or three badly disabled destroyers which succeeded in reaching Vladivostock.

Humanity cried aloud for the cessation of a war in which the estimated casualities were half a million men, and the cost to the Japanese (as officially stated in October, 1905), $1,250,000,000, and to Russia a still greater sum, with the prospect of more awful losses in lives and treasure, before which the civilized world stood aghast. President Roosevelt now did a service which won the gratitude of all men and formed the crowning event of his career. On his personal urgency, the Czar of Russia and the Mikado of Japan appointed peace commissioners, who met at Portsmouth, N. H., in August, 1905. Thus the greatest war since 1870 was brought to a close. Japan came out of the struggle triumphant and took rank as one of the first Powers of the world.

Since then she has devoted herself to the peaceful development of her natural resources. She has built up and maintains a powerful navy; for she knows that only thus can she keep Russia in check. The Japanese now hold southern Manchuria, while Russia holds the north. Each acts nominally as the agent of China; but neither shows any likelihood of ever resigning the region she has won at such terrible expense. Japan has protected herself by repeated strengthening of her English alliance. In 1911 this was renewed in very positive form to be continued for another ten years. The agreement now guards both of the allies against the advances of Russia in Asia.

In Corea, Japan has made herself all powerful. For several years after the Russian war she contented herself with placing a minister at the Corean court to "advise" its king, the advice being enforced by the active presence of Japanese troops. So difficult was this method of handling the subject country, that Japan sent her greatest statesman, the celebrated Marquis Ito, as minister to Corea. He was assassinated by a Corean fanatic in 1909. Thereupon his country took more decisive measures. The Corean king was compelled to abdicate and the country was formally annexed to Japan (August, 1910). It is ruled now by a military governor. In 1912 the governor, Count Terauchi, found evidence of widespread plans for a Corean uprising. Over a hundred people, chiefly native Christians, were arrested, and despite the protests of Christian missionaries many of the culprits were executed.

In her establishment of really constitutional government, Japan has progressed steadily. The position of her people differs, however, from that in any other land, in that the main article of faith in each political party is that of devotion to the Mikado. Before 1900 there was an effort to establish really independent parties, looking toward the reduction of the Emperor's power until he should be a mere figurehead like the English king. But it

was soon found that Marquis Ito, by simply standing out as the Mikado's friend and mouthpiece, could rally around him a majority in every parliament. Hence the so-called "liberal" party, the men of most advanced opinions, formed a society called the Seiyu-kai or royalist-liberals, and placed themselves under Ito's lead. The Seiyu-kai easily dominated parliament; and this meant that the Emperor was to remain the real head of the nation. And so, at least in name, he is to-day.

The Emperor Mutsuhito after guiding his nation through the entire period of its evolution, died in July, 1912. So great and genuine was the grief of his people that several of them committed suicide to express their devotion. Most noted of these self-destroyers were the Marquis Nogi and his wife. Nogi had been the chief hero of the Russian war, the capturer of Port Arthur. The Emperor was succeeded by his son Yoshihito, who was not quite thirty-three years old when he thus became the chief personage of Japan, the center of his people's almost fanatical loyalty.

This change of rulers did not alter the political situation. The Seiyu-kai still remained loyal. Their first leader, Ito, long before his death had transferred the parliamentary leadership to the Marquis Saionji, another personal friend of the Emperor Mutsuhito; and Saionji remained premier of Japan under the new Emperor Yoshihito. With new times, however, there come new men. In 1911 Japan, this shrine of imperial loyalty, faced an anarchistic plot. The government kept the matter from the world; even the trials of the suspects were conducted in secret. But we know at least that hundreds of Japanese were involved, that they planned to kill not only the Emperor but all the chief parliamentary leaders, and that the organization seemed more ably conducted than anything of the kind has been done in Europe. When the new reign was fairly established, the aged Marquis Saionji yielded his difficult task of leadership to a younger man. In 1913 he was succeeded as prime minister by Prince Katsura, who carries on the tradition of the Seiyu-kai by being the personal friend and voice of the new emperor, Yoshihito.

With the United States, the relations of Japan continue friendly. Some discrimination against the Japanese has recently been made by the state of California, but Japan has been patient and forbearing, and the government at Washington has done much to soothe the hostility felt in some quarters on the Pacific Coast. Japan was impoverished by her war with Russia, and is anxious above all things for peace and the opportunity to develop her resources. Hence while she followed Britain, her ally, in declaring war on Germany in 1914, she confined her early activities to expelling the Germans from their Chinese territory.

THE PEACE TREATY

(The Japanese and Russian Envoys Meet on President Roosevelt's Yacht)

From a portrait sketch by the American artist, Edwin J. Prittie

SO many and so stupendous were the battles fought between Russia and Japan in this mighty war that we have no space to record them all. The most desperate struggle was at Port Arthur. The Japanese were determined to retake this stronghold at any cost, and after six months of assault they captured for the second time this "Gibraltar of the East." They also drove the enormous Russian army out of Manchuria. Then in 1905 the long delayed Russian fleet arrived from Europe. It met the Japanese navy in the straits that separate Japan and Corea; and the two fought the largest and most important naval battle of the past generation. Once more the Japanese were completely victorious; and Russia was at length driven to make terms of peace as with an equal foe, such terms as she might have yielded to Germany or England.

The treaty was arranged here in America, under the auspices of President Roosevelt. The envoys of the two powers met on board the President's yacht "Mayflower" in the harbor of Portsmouth, New Hampshire. The Russian envoy was M. Sergius Witte, chief minister of the Czar. The Japanese was Baron Komura. Our illustration shows them at the moment when the tiny Japanese accepted the handclasp of the giant Russian statesman. President Roosevelt introduces them: America unites Europe and Asia.

VIII-73

THE SHOGUN GOING TO SURRENDER HIS AUTHORITY TO THE MIKADO, 1863

CHRONOLOGY OF JAPAN

B.C. 660 (?)—Jimmu Tenno leads the Japanese to the conquest of their islands.

A.D. 270 (?)—The Japanese Empress Jingo invades Corea. 285 (?)—Chinese literature introduced into Japan through Corea. 552 (?)—Buddhism introduced from Corea. 712—Most ancient surviving history of Japan was written. 700—Rise of the Fujiwara family. 1050—Civil wars of the Fujiwara and Taira. 1188—The Minamoto clan defeat the Taira in a great naval battle at Shimonoseki Strait. 1192—Yoritomo, chief of the Minamoto, established his power as Shogun at Kamakura. 1281—Kublai Khan defeated in an attempt to conquer Japan. 1333—The Emperor Go-Daigo destroys Kamakura.

1545—Mendez Pinto and his Portuguese countrymen permitted to trade with Japan. 1549—Saint Francis Xavier introduces Christianity. 1573—Nagasaki granted to the Portuguese as a trading harbor; rapid spread of Christianity. 1582—General Hideyoshi secures absolute control of Japan. 1587—He issues an edict against Christianity. 1592—His armies invade and devastate Corea. 1598—Corea again laid waste; death of Hideyoshi; his general, Iyeyasu, succeeds him. 1600—Battle of Sekigashara ends the civil wars. 1603—Iyeyasu re-establishes the power of the Shoguns in his own family, the Tokugawa. 1614—Terrible persecution of the Christians begun. 1637—Final rebellion of the Christians; practical extinction of the faith and exclusion of foreigners; more than a century and a half of complete isolation on the part of Japan followed.

1853—July 8, the expedition of Commodore Perry arrived in Yedo Bay. 1854—February 13, second arrival of American squadron in Yedo Bay; March 31, treaty signed with the United States; similar treaties afterward signed with Great Britain, Russia and the Netherlands. 1856—Arrival of Townsend Harris, first United States consul to Japan. 1863—The *Wyoming* severely punished the Japanese in the Strait of Shimonoseki for their many acts of hostility; attack on English subjects near Yokohama by the Satsuma retainers; Kagoshima bombarded as a punishment by Admiral Kuper. 1864—The Yedo government compelled to pay $3,000,000 indemnity; the United States returned its share. 1867—Death of the Emperor. 1868—Accession of Mutsuhito, who, for the first time in the history of Japan, personally received the representatives of foreign nations; the ports of Osaka and Hiogo opened; submission of the Shogun and revolutionists. 1869—The seat of government transferred from Kioto to Yedo, whose name was changed to Tokio; the Emperor notified the foreign Powers that all treaties were to be kept, and that he assumed supreme control of all the affairs of his empire; motion in the Assembly to abolish hara-kiri overwhelmingly defeated; feudalism abolished; a number of young men sent to Europe and America to be educated; close of the insurrection at Hakodate; Christian community discovered in Japan. 1874—First railway line opened between Yokohama and Tokio. 1875—European calendar adopted. 1876—Japan acknowledged Corea as an independent state. 1885—China and Japan agreed to withdraw all their armed forces from Corea, each to notify the other when it was deemed necessary to send troops thither. 1889—Proclamation of the new Constitution of Japan. 1894—Corea refused to enforce the reforms demanded by Japan so long as the troops of the latter remained at the capital; July 23, the Japanese attacked and captured the Corean government; July 25, first naval collision between Japan and China took place in which the *Kowshing* with a thousand Chinese was sunk; July 28, Asan abandoned by the Chinese forces; July 29, a Japanese victory gained at Song-hwan; August 1, Japan and China mutually declared war; September 15, capture of Ping-yang by the Japanese; September 17, the great naval victory of Yalu; October 24, troops landed for the capture of Port Arthur; October 25, Chinese defeated at the Yalu by Marshal Yamagata; October 30, Fenghwang occupied by the Chinese; November 5–6, Chinese forts protecting the isthmus of Port Arthur captured; November 18, Hsin-yen occupied by the Japanese; November 21, Port Arthur captured by the Japanese. 1895—Marshal Oyama's army landed forty miles from Wei-hai-wei; February 4, one of the Chinese warships sunk at night in the harbor of Wei-hai-wei; February 5, a transport and two warships destroyed in a similar manner; February 12, destruction of the Chinese fleet and capture of Wei-hai-wei; March 30, armis-

tice granted; May 8, peace treaty ratified. 1898—Children in the primary schools increased to 4,000,000. 1900—Formation of the Seiyu-kai or royalist-liberals dominating the Japanese parliament under Marquis Ito. 1902—The army reorganization of Japan was completed; defensive alliance was formed with Great Britain. 1904—War with Russia; destruction of the Russian fleet; Japanese invade Manchuria; battle of Sha River; assaults upon Port Arthur. 1905—Surrender of Port Arthur; crushing defeat of the great Russian army at Mukden; destruction of the Russian fleet; peace treaty with Russia signed at Portsmouth, N. H.; extensive peace celebrations in Japan. 1908—Ill-feeling against the United States over Japanese immigration in California. 1909—Assassination of Marquis Ito by a Corean. 1910—Korea formally annexed to Japan. 1911—A widespread anarchist murder-plot discovered and punished; British alliance renewed for ten years. 1912—Emperor Mutsuhito died and was succeeded by his son Yoshihito; an extensive patriotic conspiracy unearthed in Corea. 1913—Prince Katsura prime minister of the Empire.

JAPANESE JUNK PASSING THE TAKU FORTS

EMPERORS OF JAPAN

B.C.
660—Jimmu Tenno.

* * * *

A.D.
192—Chuai.
201—Jingo (*Empress Regent*).
270—Ojin.
313—Nintoku.
400—Richu.
406—Hanzei.
412—Inkyo.
454—Anko.
457—Yuriyaku.
480—Seinei.
485—Kenzo.
488—Ninken.
499—Muretsu.
507—Keitai.
534—Ankan.
536—Senkwa.
540—Kimmei.
572—Bidatsu.
586—Yomei.
588—Sujun.
593—Suiko (*Empress*).
629—Jomei.
642—Kokyoku (*Empress*).
645—Kotoku.
655—Saimei.
668—Tenji.
672—Kobun.
673—Temmu.
690—Jito (*Empress*).
697—Mommu.
708—Gemmyo (*Empress*).
715—Gensho (*Empress*).
724—Shomu.
749—Koken (*Empress*).
759—Junnin.
765—Koken (*re-enthroned*).
770—Konin.
782—Kwammu.
806—Heijo.
810—Saga.
824—Ninna.
834—Nimmyo.
851—Montoku.
859—Seiwa.
877—Yozei.
885—Koko.
888—Uda.
898—Daigo.

931—Shujaku.
947—Muragami.
968—Reizei.
970—Enyu.
985—Kwazan.
987—Ichiyo.
1012—Sanjo.
1017—Go-Ichijo.
1037—Go-Shujaku.
1047—Go-Reizei.
1069—Go-Sanjo.
1073—Shirakawa.
1087—Horikawa.
1108—Toba.
1124—Shutoku.
1142—Konoye.
1156—Go-Shirakawa.
1159—Nijo.
1166—Rokujo.
1169—Takakura.
1181—Antoku.
1186—Go-Toba.
1199—Tsuchi-mikado.
1211—Juntoku.
1222—Chukyo.
1221—Go-Horikawa.
1232—Yojo.
1242—Go-Saga.
1246—Go-Fukakusa.
1259—Kameyama.
1274—Go-Uda.
1288—Fushimi.
1298—Go-Fushimi.
1301—Go-Nijyo.
1308—Hanazono.
1318—Go-Daigo.
1339—Go-Murakami.
1373—Go-Kameyama.
1382—Go-Komatsu.
1414—Shoko.
1429—Go-Hanazono.
1465—Go-Tsuchi-mikado.
1521—Go-Kashiwabara.
1536—Go-Nara.
1560—Ogimachi.
1586—Go-Yojo.
1611—Go-Mizuo.
1630—Myosho (*Empress*).
1643—Go-Komyo.
1656—Go-Nishio.
1663—Reigen.
1687—Higashiyama.
1710—Naka-mikado.
1720—Sakuramachi.
1747—Momozono.
1763—Go-Sakuramachi (*Empress*).
1771—Go-Momozono.
1780—Kokaku.
1817—Jinko.
1847—Komei.
1868—Mutsuhito
1912—Yoshihito.

CHRISTIAN MAR[illegible] UNDER IYEYASU

PRONOUNCING VOCABULARY OF JAPAN

Chifu (chē-foo)
Choshu (chō-shoo)
Hara-kiri (hah-rah′kē-rē)
Hiroshima (hē-rō-shē′mă)
Iyeyasu (ē-yĕ-yah-sŭ)
Inouye (ē-noo-yā)
Ito (ē-tō)
Kanagawa (kah′nah-yah′wah)
Kyushu (kyoo-shoo)
Lia-tung (le′ah-tŭng)
Mukden (mook′den)
Mutsuhito (moo-tsoo-hē-tō)
Nagasaki (nah-gah-sah′-kē)
Niuchwang (nee-oo-chwang)
Pe-chi-li (pĕ-chē′lē)
Saghalien (sah′gah-leen′)
Samaurai (săm′ō-rī)
Seoul (sowl)
Shan-tung (shahn-tŭng)
Shanghai (shang-hah′ē)
Shikoki (shēk-ō′kĭ)
Shimoda (shē-mō′dah)
Shimonoseki (shē′-mō-nō-sā′kē)
Tachimi (tah-chē′mē)
Tangchau (tăng-chō)
Tatung (tah-tŭng)
Tokio (tō-kyō)
Wei-hai-wei (wā-hī′-wā)
Wi-ju (wē-yoo)
Yalu (yah-loo)
Yamagata (yah-mahng′ah-tah)
Yamaji (yah-mah′yĕ)
Yedo (yed′-dō)
Yokohama (yō′kō-hah′mah)
Zipangu (zē-pŏn′goo)

SHINTO PRIESTS OFFERING SACRIFICE

The Wreck of the Santa Maria

MODERN NATIONS—THE UNITED STATES

Chapter I

THE DISCOVERERS OF AMERICA

[*Authorities—General:* Winsor, "Narrative and Critical History of America"; Ellis, "History of Our Country"; Bryant and Gay, "United States"; McMaster, "History of the People of the United States"; Schouler, "United States"; Wilson, "History of the American People"; Hart, "American History Told by Contemporaries"; Hildreth, "United States."—*Special:* Horsford, "Discovery by Northmen"; Fiske, "Discovery of North America"; Irving, "Columbus"; Winsor "Columbus"; Markham, "Columbus."]

WE have traversed the course of the ages. We have seen nation after nation rise to supremacy. Egypt, Persia, Greece, Rome, Germany, Spain, France, England, each in turn dominated the world. Let us now look nearer home. What part is our own land to take in this grand pageant? Is the United States indeed to be, as we fondly hope, the great world leader of the future?

The asking of this question can no longer be ridiculed as a vainglorious patriotism. Practical common sense has everywhere raised the inquiry. The Powers of Europe are propounding it to one another with grave anxiety. Enthusiastic Americans assert that it is already answered, that our state already leads in enterprise and foresight, in energy and skill, in trade, manufactures, and inventions.

If this forecast, or indeed any portion of it, is true, we must turn to our own history with special and eager interest, and trace with proud hearts the steps by which our land has risen to its present eminence. It is

only by understanding the past that we can understand the future, and learn, each of us, to do his little part in helping to carry forward the dazzling promise of our history. If we are to be world-leaders, we must know why we lead, and whence, and whither.

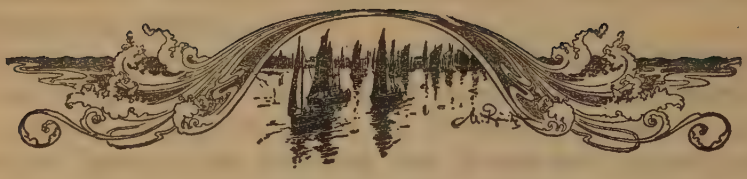
The story of the United States is unlike that of any other great nation, in that its present people have occupied its soil only about three hundred years; and they did not come as did the Franks into France, the Goths and Moslems into Spain, or the Norsemen into Russia and England—a few conquerors to blend with and degenerate among a more numerous and ancient subject people. Instead, the pick of all that were ablest, most earnest, most daring, most conquering among the European races, came here to stand alone. They remained here unweakened by any mingling with feebler blood. They found just enough fighting against wild Indians and wilder nature to hold them to their highest pitch of energy and endeavor. They were men to be proud of, those ancestors of ours, not perfect by any means, but infinitely superior to the ignorant, often brutalized peasantry that then formed the mass of the population in all European states.

Columbus has long been made the first of these mighty figures to pass across the stage. If, however, we cling closely to facts, Columbus was not the earliest of the discoverers of America. This is no longer a whispered possibility —it is established beyond argument. An American historian once wrote that the great advantage the study of our history possessed over that of more ancient lands, was the possibility of beginning here with facts, instead of with a cluster of impossible legends. More recently, however, we are beginning to suspect that the only difference between our legends and those of other races has been, that we have accepted ours blindly.

To discriminate between truth and romance is not always easy; still we may say positively that America went through a long series of both discoveries and forgettings, from a European and Asiatic world, which had at first no need of her. The earliest explorers have been long sunk in oblivion. It may be that they came from the fabulous island of Atlantis, since sunk beneath the ocean. Perhaps they set out from Egypt; for Central America has pyramids strangely like the Egyptian. Perhaps they were Arctic wanderers from Siberia.

Of Japanese discoverers there are definite traces; poor, starving fishermen probably, caught up in Japan's great ocean current, and swept remorselessly away from home and friends, until their skeleton forms were tossed upon our Pacific coast. There may have been many of these unhappy wretches who reached here, some living, some dead, and perchance never one of them able to make his way back home again.

The first of this shadowy line of wanderers to whom we can to-day attach



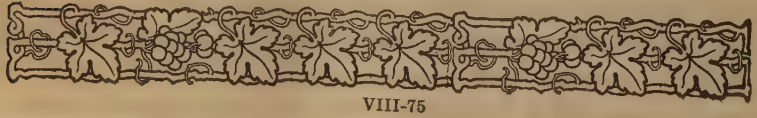
THE DREAM OF COLUMBUS

(Columbus in His Poverty Dreams of Sailing tc a New World)

From a painting by Manuel Picolo, a Spanish artist of the nineteenth century

IN 1436 there was born in Genoa in Italy that remarkable man, Christopher Colon, or Colombo, who by sheer force of intellect conceived that there must be land beyond the ocean, that the earth must be a sphere, so that by sailing west one could reach east at last. In those days the Portuguese were the chief seafaring nations, the explorers; and Columbus, being a ship-captain, found himself in their capital of Lisbon in 1470. There he married a Portuguese explorer's daughter, and had by her his little son Diego. Already he had visions of his western voyage. He sailed probably to Iceland and on many other expeditions for the Portuguese king, and as early as 1481 he proposed to that monarch his scheme for circumnavigating the earth. The king borrowed the maps and plans of Columbus and sent a secret expedition of his own to test the Italian's theories. But the mariners thus sent out proved faint-hearted and soon sailed home again. And Columbus, learning of the trick that had been played on him, left Lisbon in anger.

His wife was dead, his little son and he were wholly impoverished, he left clamorous creditors behind him in Lisbon, and the chance that he could ever gather ships and men for the expedition he planned seemed wholly impossible. Only the fevered courage of the enthusiast, the visionary, led Columbus to persist that he would fulfil his dream at last.



VIII-75

definite personality and a name, is Bjarne Herjulfson. One would not quite like to swear to Bjarne's actual existence, still he is an interesting if not a particularly heroic figure. He was a Norseman, a pilot, cruising around the well-established Norse settlements in Greenland, when a storm drove his bark westward. There were days and nights of terror; and then, as the black clouds lifted, Bjarne and his men looked upon great barren cliffs such as Labrador shows to day. Afterward they saw other and yet other lands. But Bjarne was not, apparently, an adventurous spirit. He would have much preferred being at home, rather than risking his tiny ship near these treacherous and unattractive rocks. So home he went as fast as possible, without even paying us the courtesy of a landing. His visit probably dates from about the year 986.

Afterward came another, who had heard Bjarne's story. This was Lief Ericson, son of that Eric the Red who first settled Greenland. Lief was a noted man among his fellows, a fine hero-figure, so far as we can make him out, a friend of the great King Olaf of Norway. Olaf had adopted Christianity, and Lief brought the faith to Greenland. Then, perhaps because his new religion was not well received among his kinsmen, Lief, in the year 1000, sailed away to explore the lands Bjarne had seen and fled from.

Lief and his followers found these easily enough, and sailed southward with ever-increasing wonder, along a shore that blossomed greener as they advanced. At length they reached a land where wild grapes grew, as they grow now in New England. This coast, which the explorers called "Vineland," may have been anywhere between Maine and Rhode Island; it was certainly within those limits. Lief stayed there throughout the mild winter, and then, loading his ships with grapes, lumber, and other finds precious indeed to his countrymen, he returned to Greenland. He was called Lief the Lucky.

Within the next few years the Norsemen established quite a settlement in Vineland; and for several generations voyages continued to be made back and forth. The settlers had a little trouble with the native savages, "skrelligs" they called them; but these skrelligs do not appear to have been either numerous or very dangerous.

There seemed every opportunity for the prosperous development of a new Norse empire in America. We wish we knew more clearly why it faded and disappeared. The Vinelanders became lonely perhaps, or there was not fighting enough to please them, or richer lands offered plunder elsewhere. At any rate they abandoned America at last, and it lived among them only as a memory—a tale written down with other and more stirring ones among their sagas.

Perchance Columbus heard the story. It may have been one among the

many causes that prompted him to seek land in the far west. To philosophize about old legends and vague theories as to the possible rotundity of the earth is, however, a very different thing from staking your own fortune and entire future upon their truth. It is here that Columbus' first title to greatness arises. Having convinced himself that his theory was right, he gave his life to it. If there be one lesson more than another to be gathered from the story of Columbus, it is that of persistency. Let us take him as the grand type of America in this. He could insist, he could persevere.

In those days such an expedition as his required a truly royal purse to equip it. His own city refused him; so did Portugal; so did England; so did Spain. He grew gray-haired and despondent, he had to beg his bread. Yet he persevered, and when at last Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain consented to reconsider his plan, he wellnigh wrecked it entirely by insisting on such extravagant terms of reward as never explorer received before or since.

The penniless and ragged adventurer demanded that, if successful, he and his heirs should be transformed into the greatest of the grandees of Spain; that he should be viceroy, admiral, and governor-general of all the lands he might discover, judge in all disputes arising between them and the mother country, and owner of one-tenth of all the wealth of every kind that they might produce forever.

It sounds like the roll of titles in a fairy tale; and the marvel to-day is not that Ferdinand the Wise of Spain laughed at such terms, but rather that he finally yielded to them; for it was he, not the penniless Columbus, who gave way. The noble-hearted Queen Isabella was the real supporter of the daring adventurer. He told her that by sailing west he hoped to come around at last into the East, and reach the much talked-of but unknown lands of India. When he spoke of the countless millions of heathen that might be converted to the Christian faith, Isabella's religious fervor raised her to a height as resolute as his own, and she offered her crown jewels to pay the expenses of the expedition.

Even then the adventurer's troubles were only begun. King Ferdinand quite refused to sacrifice his wife's treasures, and he opened his own purse but a very little way. Other men were as sceptical as he, and few seamen could be induced to venture on so mad a trip. If Columbus were indeed right, they said, and the world was round, it might prove easy enough to sail down its slopes, but how were they ever to sail up again? One able man and shipmaster, Martin Pinzon, joined the expedition heartily, and it was in his town of Palos and by his aid that ships and men were finally gathered, though at the last the King had even to throw open the Palos jail and promise freedom to such prisoners as would join the fleet. So it was with three rickety little ves-

COLUMBUS BEFORE ISABELLA

(Isabella Offers Her Jewels to Furnish Funds for the Explorer's Voyage)

From the celebrated painting by Vacslav Brozik, the Bohemian artist, now in the Metropolitan Museum of Art of New York

NEVER surely did man display more dogged persistency of purpose than Columbus. Rejected again and again by the Spanish sovereigns, he continued his importunities over many weary years, and only turned from the Spanish court to approach others with his plans. France seemed inclined to listen to him now, and to France he was going when his friend, the Prior of Santa Maria, interfered and by a direct letter to Queen Isabella secured her attention once more. She sent for Columbus to come to her; she interested her husband, King Ferdinand. But when they asked Columbus what reward he expected if successful, he named such terms as seemed so exaggerated that again he was dismissed from the court. Not one iota would he yield, and again he turned toward France. But Isabella's enthusiasm was now aroused. She sent after the haughty adventurer, entreating him to return. He came and, in the celebrated interview here pictured, told her of the thousands of natives of the far climes to be converted to Christianity, and vowed that his own profits should be devoted to a crusade. So at length Isabella pledged her aid. Her husband urged the court's lack of money. "I will pledge my own jewels," said the Queen, "and undertake the enterprise for my own crown of Castile." But the crafty King Ferdinand would not agree to that; he found money for the enterprise when he saw he must.

VIII-11

sels, and with a crew composed in part at least of jailbirds, that the momentous expedition left Palos, August 3, 1492.

We have no space to dwell upon the wonders of that trip, but every American should read the tale in full—the despair of the sailors, the tricks by which their leader coaxed them on, the mutinies, the signs of land that failed, the dreary days. Even Columbus had never dreamed that the voyage could be so long. Yet through all he persisted, and on October 14, 1492, the Bahama island of San Salvador was reached at last.

After some little cruising among the surrounding islands, Columbus made haste back to Spain. He took with him a few of the native "Indians" as he called them, and some specimens of gold, as proof of what he had done and promise of the riches to follow. Spain went mad with delight; Ferdinand and Isabella received the returned Lord High Admiral and Viceroy with great splendor, and hurried him back on a second expedition. How it differed from the first! Men, money, and ships—everything in Spain—was at his disposal. His only embarrassment was in rejecting the too extravagant offers that poured upon him from every side.

The West Indies, however, are not the United States; and it is well we should keep clearly in mind that, except for the island of Porto Rico, Columbus never did discover any of the land actually within our borders. We will not, therefore, dwell upon his further voyages. The *Santa Maria*, his flagship, in which he himself had made the first outward voyage, had been wrecked among the islands; and he had thus been forced to leave a portion of his men behind him in the New World. They stayed readily enough, hoping to find much gold among the "Indians"; and they built a fort and settlement called La Navidad.

This was the first modern attempt to colonize America. The colonists abused the natives most cruelly, and finally their suffering victims turned, and slew them to the last man. When Columbus sought the settlement on his second voyage, he found nothing but the charred remnants of the fort.

None of his dreams, indeed, turned out as he had hoped. The land he had set out to find was Asia or India, the scarce comprehended world of the East, whence tedious and dangerous caravans journeyed to Europe with their rich spices. He looked for a vast civilized island, the Japan or Zipangu of romance, a region abounding in gold and precious jewels. The beautiful but barbaric climes which he did discover had not nearly the wealth he sought, or at least their wealth was slower in being brought to light. Neither he nor Spain was the richer after his first voyage, nor after his second. Yet adventurers flocked to the New World, settlements were formed, and slowly a stream of gold began to flow toward King Ferdinand's coffers.

With Columbus the new colonists found many causes of quarrel. He was haughty and exacting, and in the end they sent him back to Spain, a prisoner in chains. This treatment of the hero to whom so much was due roused Spanish chivalry for the moment, and something of his honors and offices were restored to him. Still there is no denying that he was an inefficient governor, and he died in Spain, in 1506, in poverty and disgrace.

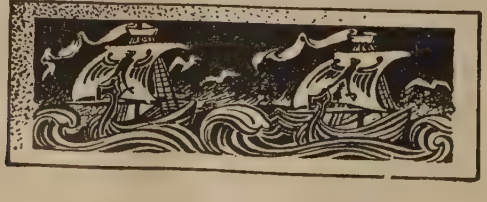
The compact of reward made with the great discoverer was never kept; perhaps the crafty King Ferdinand had never meant to keep it. He compromised matters by erecting over the grave of Columbus in Seville a grandiloquent monument inscribed:

"To Castile and to Leon
Columbus gave a New World."

Yet Castile and Leon had refused the discoverer payment for the gift, and cheated him of his price. There seems, therefore, a rough justice in the fact that sturdier nations have snatched away the prize. It slipped through many hands, until to-day it is you and I, not Spain, nor France, nor England, who have the best part of Columbus' gift.

Did he give it, after all? And if so, why was this giving more lasting and more important than that of Lief, five centuries before? The question opens a field too vast for answer. Putting it in briefest form, the world of Lief's day had no need of America. She had too many unpeopled wildernesses of her own. In the age of Columbus, Western Europe began to feel cramped for space. Moreover, the art of navigation had advanced; the voyage across the Atlantic was not quite so lengthy but that shrewd traders could make it with a margin of profit. Debits and credits footed up now on the proper side of the financial ledger.

So there, in truth, you find the merchant's reason at the bottom of it all. Not the highest motive, you will say, for the retention of a new world once rejected. Yet we had as well accept it frankly as one of the most powerful of the motives that have helped mankind; and find reason for rejoicing in that it was not the sole stimulus to America's discovery. Both Columbus and Isabella, the central figures of the tale, thought first of glory and of religion.



Chapter II

THE EXPLORERS OF THE UNITED STATES

[*Special Authorities:* Irving, "Companions of Columbus"; Hakluyt, "Voyages"; Ellis, "The Red Man and the White"; Schoolcraft, "Indian Tribes"; Bancroft, "The Pacific States"; Higginson, "Explorers of America"; Murray, "Catholic Pioneers of America"; Helps, "Spanish Conquest in America."]

WHICH among the explorers of this final period of discovery first reached the mainland of the United States? The question turns our eyes toward England, where King Henry VII., having defeated the wicked Richard III. and ended the Wars of the Roses, was plodding comfortably along his parsimonious path, and was, in his narrow way, developing British commercial enterprise, for the personal profit that it brought him.

Columbus had sent a brother to the English court to seek help there; but Henry delayed and quibbled like the other monarchs, amazed at the adventurer's exacting terms. Now, when the wonderful news of Columbus' triumph reached England, the King felt that he had let a great opportunity slip by, and he listened readily to the next Italian seaman who sought his court.

This was John Cabot, a wealthy Venetian, who had settled in Bristol. The Italians were the great mariner nation of the fifteenth century. The English had not yet developed into that mighty sea-roaming, sea-fighting race which, under Elizabeth a century later, learned to dominate the oceans. They had already bold fishermen among them, but no master mariner who might assert himself against John Cabot.

THE MUTINY

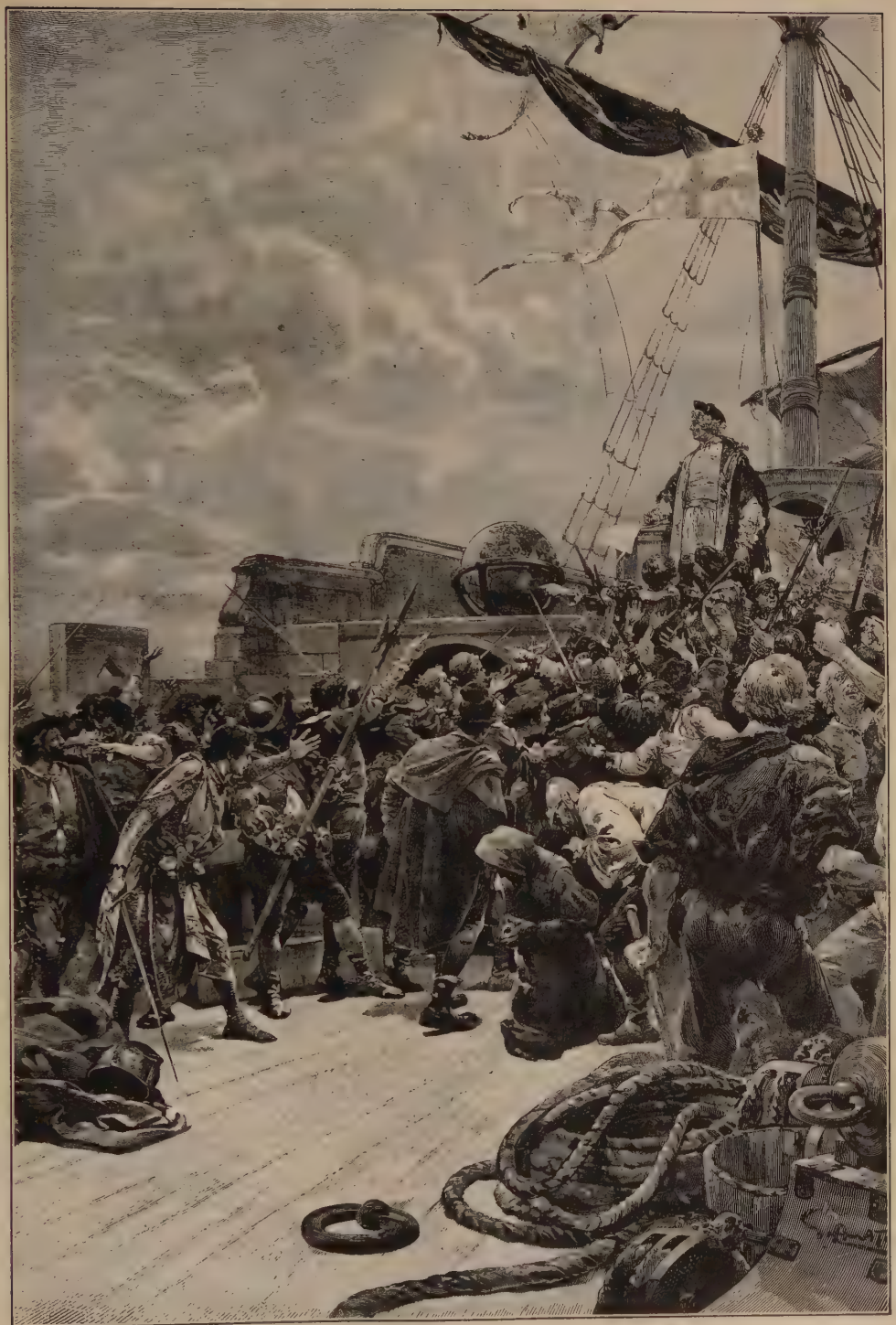
(Columbus Refuses to Turn Back, and Defies His Sailors)

From a drawing by the contemporary artist, G. Amato

COLUMBUS sailed first to the Canary Islands, which were already well known. From there he pushed forth westward into the untried, uncharted ocean. For over nine weeks he sailed steadily westward. He was fortunate in having good weather, and there was little test of seamanship upon the voyage, though the compass varied in a way that puzzled Columbus and alarmed his crew. Everything alarmed them. Even the fair weather did so; they whispered that it was not natural, that sirens were luring them on to their destruction, that they were sailing smoothly down the side of the earth and could never sail back.

From the first they were not an easy crew to handle, and at last they grew openly mutinous. They plotted to throw Columbus overboard and return, saying he had fallen over. He watched them closely, calm-eyed but strong, scarcely ever leaving the high castle-like top deck. Their murmurings rose to open threats until on October 10 they came to Columbus like a body of madmen frenzied with their fear. They screamed and cursed at him and demanded that he turn back or they would make him do so. Columbus defied them. Nothing he said would turn him back; and they too must go on with him to the end.

Fortunately the next day the evidences of approaching land were so many that the whole expedition was roused to eager hopefulness, and the day after that the land was seen.



VIII-79

bitter blow to him when he found them savages, without one trinket worth the stealing, unless it were the furs in which they wrapped themselves.

Still Sebastian persevered, hoping to penetrate past this shore to a richer land. He sailed southward for months, peeped in, perhaps, at New York Bay, ran with eager hope up the mighty Delaware, till he found it only a river, not a strait leading to other seas beyond. Chesapeake Bay was examined also; and finally the young ship-master turned unwillingly back to Britain in the fall, having explored our coast as far as the Carolinas, possibly beyond.

England considered Sebastian's voyage a failure. Men's minds were as yet turned only toward trade, not colonization. Sebastian had demonstrated that no wealth was to be found where he had sailed, so no Englishmen followed after him. Spain had a use for the able navigator and map-maker; he was invited thither, and, deserting England, spent the best years of a long and busy life in the service of Spain.

One class of people had scented profit in the Cabots' discoveries. Sebastian had talked of vast, immeasurable shoals of codfish! The French fishermen, Normans and Bretons, were already risking their lives for a few scant fish upon their own rocky coasts. A little more risk, a little more of a wild daring which had no watchful historian to record its heroism, and the French fishing-boats had sailed across the Atlantic and were loading to the gunwale with Newfoundland cod. These ventures may have begun as early as the year 1500. Soon the fishermen stayed over winter and built themselves rough huts along the shore. Some of these habitations may have been erected even as far south as the coast of Maine; and so the French were the first to dwell in our land. Of course these huts must not be regarded as settlements; they were mere temporary structures, built for the moment's use, and abandoned as soon as the fishermen could return to sunny France.

Thus it came to pass that the Spaniards were the first to penetrate deeply into our land, for they alone found signs of the wealth which all the explorers sought. The Spanish adventurers made their headquarters in Cuba and the other islands Columbus had discovered, and thence they extended their search in all directions. South America was reached in 1498 by Columbus himself; Central America in 1501 by Bastidas; and the Pacific Ocean was first known to Europeans in 1513, when Balboa and his comrades gazed out over its vast waters, "silent, upon a peak in Darien."

In this same year of 1513 the Spaniards first touched the mainland of the United States. They were led by Ponce de Leon, and they came in search of something even more valuable than gold. They sought a fountain in which, the Indians told them, whoever bathed became young again. Science had not then convinced men that this was impossible, and De Leon, who was grow-

ing old, fitted out an expedition at his own expense. Wandering from island to island, bathing, as we may fancy them, in every brook, his band came at last to the mainland near St. Augustine. It was on Palm Sunday, the Spanish "Feast of Flowers"; and seeing what a world of blossoms he had reached, De Leon called it, as we do still, the land of flowers, or Florida.

The credulous explorer now abandoned his search for the Fountain of Youth. He had found fame instead, and he returned to Cuba. Afterward he came again to Florida as its governor, meaning to plant a colony there. The Indians attacked him, slew many of his men, and wounded De Leon so that he died. Wealth, fame, and death—those were the gifts the new land held for the Spaniards, but never youth. That they had already left behind. Their race was even then hastening toward corruption and decay.

As yet, however, they had no suspicion of the doom their own cruelty was to bring upon their descendants. They felt themselves a race of world-subduers. In 1519, Cortez conquered golden Mexico, and Spain's dream of boundless wealth became a reality. Pizarro mastered equally rich Peru; and in 1528 De Narvaez planned to find and capture some similar prize in Florida.

His expedition landed on the western coast, near Tampa, three hundred eager, daring Spaniards, each with a conqueror's crown looming before his vision. They died, ah, how fast they died! during the advance amid those torrid, pestilential Florida swamps. The alligators, deadly snakes, and deadlier fevers scarce needed the angry Indians to help them in their work. Only a miserable remnant of the gallant band fought their way to the coast again, and these could not find their ships, so they built five rough barks and sailed along the shore, hoping to reach the ports of Mexico.

Narvaez had lost his influence as commander, and the chief man among the fugitives was Cabeza de Vaca (Cow-head, however he got the name), the treasurer. Cow-head and his companions saw the mouth of the Mississippi, and marvelled at its mighty volume of waters. Despite their crazy boats, they attempted to sail up the vast stream, but could make no headway against its current. Then a storm struck them, and they were wrecked on an island somewhere along the Texas coast, Galveston, perhaps.

There they starved, all but four of them, and turned cannibal, and did things which may have been more horrible than Cabeza dared confess in the amazing book he wrote about their sufferings. At last, Cabeza started off alone to find sustenance among the Indians, and became the earliest of our pioneers, the earliest at least who lived to tell of his wanderings.

Where he went, we cannot say with certainty. Probably he passed through most of Texas and Indian Territory, perhaps reaching New Mexico and even

THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA

(Columbus Lands and Claims America for Spain)

From a painting by the recent Spanish artist, D. Puebla

THE land which the great and heroic discoverer first sighted on that historic morning of October 12 was called by the natives Guanahané. He called it San Salvador. The English have since named it Cat Island. It is one of the Bahamas, which lie far to the southward of Spain, the deflection of the compass having led the adventurers southwest when they thought themselves sailing due west.

The landing was accomplished with elaborate ceremony. A boat from each of the other ships joined that from the flagship, and Columbus himself was the first to set foot on shore. He must have been a most imposing figure to the naked natives who peeped at him from among the trees. Tall, richly clad in scarlet, with his white flowing hair and his inspired face, he waved above him the royal banner of Ferdinand and Isabella. He tells us that he was delighted with the balmy clearness of the atmosphere, the soft color of the quiet sea, the luxuriant green of the foliage. He felt this land was indeed a paradise; and kneeling, he uttered a prayer of thanks to God, and kissed the earth. Then rising he proclaimed that he took possession of the land for Spain. His followers were like madmen, embracing him, cheering, entreating his forgiveness for their rebellion, and vowing henceforth to follow blindly where he led.

VIII-80

beyond. He was seven years among the Indians, taught them many things, and learned much of their ways of life. He became a personage of importance among them and traded from tribe to tribe, or practised "medicine"; that is, he pretended to heal by charms and to work spells upon the red men. At last he stumbled upon three of his former comrades, and the four worked their way southwestward, until in 1536, they presented themselves, "like wild men," naked, sun-blacked, and covered with hair, among the Spaniards of Mexico.

Cabeza's tale stimulated others to visit the region through which he had wandered. True, he had found no riches, but he contributed another to the many legends of golden lands which lured the Spaniards onward. He had heard from the Indians of the "Seven Cities of Cibola," with wonderful emerald-lined palaces many stories high; in which we may recognize, perhaps, the Pueblo cliff-dwellings of Arizona.

Ferdinand de Soto determined to find and conquer this dreamland realm. He had been with Balboa and with Pizarro, and under them made a fortune so vast that he became a grandee in Spain, and loaned money to the King. He hoped now to found an empire of his own. Following in the footsteps of Narvaez, he landed at Tampa Bay in 1539, and with nine hundred men penetrated into Florida.

His marvellous march scarce needs to be detailed again. He was three years in the wilderness. His little army, ever diminishing, fought battle after battle. They crossed Georgia, and Alabama, and at a city where Mobile now stands, they fought an Indian nation and slew twenty-five hundred of their unfortunate opponents. They passed over the present States of Mississippi and Tennessee, and came out upon the great Mississippi River, somewhere in the vicinity of Memphis. They crossed Arkansas and Missouri, everywhere fighting and burning and plundering; but the "Seven Cities of Cibola" were nowhere to be found. Finally, discouraged and despondent, De Soto turned back to the Mississippi, died, and was buried beneath its waters (1542). His three hundred surviving followers built boats and sailed down the river, and thence to their countrymen in Mexico.

Meanwhile, another Spaniard, Coronado, governor of one of the Mexican provinces, was also hunting for the "Seven Cities" with their emerald floors and many-storied palaces. In 1540 he led an expedition up Mexico's western coast along the Gulf of California to the mouth of the Colorado, and thence up that mighty stream. He crossed Arizona and New Mexico, and saw the cliff-dwellers, who fled from him into their almost inaccessible homes. Some of these he captured, but apparently had no suspicion that they formed the origin of the extravagant tales which he had heard. He searched through Texas, and then pushed northward perhaps as far as Nebraska. His band and that of De

Soto must have almost met each other. Neither found the wealth for which they sought.

Then, for a time, Spain too, abandoned her explorations within our borders, and turned her attention to the southward. She declared, even as England had done, that the northland was an unprofitable wilderness. The development of our own country was thus allowed to lag a whole century behind that of Central and South America.

THE FIRST SETTLEMENT—LA NAVIDAD

DE GOURGUES SURPRISING THE SPANISH FORTS

Chapter III

THE COLONIES THAT FAILED

[*Special Authorities:* Doyle, "English Colonies in America"; Thwaite, "The Colonies"; Edward, "Sir Walter Raleigh"; Fisher, "The Colonial Era"; Lodge, "English Colonies in America."]

WE must distinguish clearly between the purposes of the different classes of adventurers who sought the new world. There were the explorers, who came like Columbus to discover new pathways round the globe; the traders like John Cabot, whose aim was to barter worthless trinkets for rich treasures and then to return to an old age of ease and luxury at home. There were the conquerors like De Soto, who looked for empires over which to tyrannize; and then there were the colonizers, men who sought merely a fertile soil, on which to plant new homes, to dwell, to rear their children, and to die. Only the last class could be of permanent value to the world they entered. The others have passed away like dreams. In the exciting tales of their daring, we can find none but a sentimental interest. It was the colonists who built up our land, and shaped our destiny. We are flesh of their flesh, life of their life, and to this day we think and act as their adventures and experiences have taught us.

The Spaniards proved poor colonizers. Their conception of a settlement in the new world was of a collection of Indian or negro slaves, held under by the cruelty of a few Spanish masters, who lived in idleness on the profits of their victims' toil. Such a state of society is essentially unprogressive, equally

THE RETURN OF COLUMBUS

(The Treasures of America Displayed to Ferdinand and Isabella)

By the German artist, G. Adolf Closs, painted in Stuttgart in 1892

COLUMBUS sailed amid the islands of the Indies for more than three months, from October until the following January. Everywhere he treated the natives with kindness, and they became his friends. At his suggestion ten of them agreed to voyage to Spain with him. He gathered also samples of the products of the region, gold and gems, strange fruits, gorgeous birds, balls of cotton, and rolls of tobacco which he had seen the natives smoke, but himself despised.

In December his flagship was wrecked off the coast of Hayti, the steersman having run carelessly too close to shore. Only one of his smaller ships was with him at the time, so transferring his cargo to that, he left a colony of forty of his men behind. They stayed gladly, and he built them a fort which they named La Navidad; then he sailed for Spain. The return voyage was as stormy as the outward one had been calm. More than once Columbus almost gave up hope; his ships were separated; but his own cockle-shell of a boat reached the coast of Portugal in safety on March 4. He re-entered Palos on March 15; the other storm-tossed bark got there the next day.

The discoverer was received with tremendous honor by astonished and delighted Spain; and he hastened to lay before his sovereigns the trophies of his voyage.

VIII-81

Two years later (1564) the Huguenots tried again under Laudonnière, and a colony was established near the mouth of the St. John's River in Florida. Ribault brought out reinforcements, and the settlement grew to hold nearly a thousand souls, including women and children. Houses were built, a strong fort was erected, and a new France seemed fairly blossoming in the wilderness.

The story of its destruction is tragic in the extreme. After a lapse of forty years the Spaniards were making another attempt to establish themselves in Florida. Pedro Menendez, commander of the expedition, heard of the settlement of the French. Sailing up to the St. John's River, he notified the Huguenots that he had strict orders from the King of Spain "to hang and behead all heretics found within his dominion." Then he turned southward and landed his own colonists at St. Augustine (September 8, 1565).

Ribault determined to take the initiative with the French ships and attack Menendez at St. Augustine. But a fierce tempest arose, and scattered his tiny barks as wrecks along the coast. The Spanish leader, taking better advantage of the wild weather which persisted from day to day, marched his soldiers northward through the Florida swamps and forests, and from their depths burst suddenly in even deadlier storm upon the unfortunate French settlement. The people were crouched within their cabins, expecting attack only from the sea, and surely not in such a blinding tempest. They were totally unprepared. It was not a battle, but a massacre; women and children were cut down with the rest. A few, a very few, escaped to the woods and the Indians, and finally made their way back to France in two little barks that were preserved. The shipwrecked sailors along the coast were also captured by Menendez, who hanged or beheaded them with his other victims. A few who were Catholics were spared, Menendez taking care to proclaim that he had slain the colonists, "Not as Frenchmen, but as heretics."

The Catholic court of France made no protest; perhaps it found a secret pleasure in this atrocity. A private French gentleman, however, a Catholic, De Gourgues, vowed to avenge his murdered countrymen. He fitted out an expedition at his own cost, and sailed for Florida. Landing at the mouth of the St. John's, he succeeded in surprising the Spanish settlement which had been erected on the ruins of the French one. He stormed both its forts, and hanged his prisoners on the very trees which had been used as gallows for the Frenchmen. Then he sailed away, leaving over the dangling scarecrow figures a placard, that he had hanged them "Not as Spaniards, but as assassins."

The Huguenots did not at that time follow further their dream of emigration. The massacre of St. Bartholomew reduced their numbers and hardened their tempers. Affairs began to turn in their favor in France, and at last a King of their own faith fought his way to the French throne. Under him the

struggle for a French empire beyond seas was renewed, but its seat was placed farther north. The only part of the new world indisputably French was the St. Lawrence valley, which the French fishermen had discovered, and Cartier had explored. Samuel Champlain was now sent thither, and after various efforts he planted a permanent colony at Quebec (1608). Thus Canada became French.

Florida became Spanish, at least to the extent of holding the single Spanish settlement of St. Augustine, which De Gourgues had found himself too weak to attack. Its inhabitants never gathered the wealth which the southland poured into the hands of their countrymen; but the town continued to exist in feeble fashion, and is thus the oldest permanent settlement within the continental United States.

A few years later, the Spaniards also established themselves in the southwest. Spanish missionaries, the noblest of their race, pushed their way northward from Mexico, spreading their faith among the Indians. A chain of tiny churches or mission houses gradually extended far into New Mexico and Arizona (1582). In 1598 the town of Santa Fé (Holy Faith) was established as a centre and capital for the entire region; and gradually the little settlements of Christianized Indians under Spanish or Mexican priests reached even to California and far up the Pacific coast.

By this time, however, Spain's military power showed symptoms of decline. The epic struggle had begun between her and England for the mastery of the seas. The Pope had sanctified Spain's claim to most of America, and Catholic England, under Henry VII., had perhaps felt some hesitation about disputing her rights. Protestant England, under Elizabeth, had no such scruples. The memory of the Cabots' half-forgotten voyages was revived; and because of them England asserted ownership over the middle region between Canada and Florida.

Practically, Elizabeth's reign was one long war with Spain. Nominally the two countries were sometimes at peace. Neither actually invaded the other; but whenever Englishman and Spaniard met, they fought; and the British sailors of the time have gained undying renown. The Spaniards called them pirates; plunderers they undoubtedly were, daring sea-robbers who lay in wait for the golden galleons of Spain, which sailed freighted with the wealth of the Indies. That wealth began to find its way to England as often as to Spain.

Drake, known to Spaniards as "the Dragon," the most famous fighter of them all, sailed around South America and up the Pacific coast (1578), plundering all the unprotected Spanish settlements he found there, until his vessel fairly groaned with gold and silver. All the Spanish fleets of the Atlantic

DEATH OF COLUMBUS

(The Great Discoverer Dies in Poverty at Valladolid)

From the series painted by G. Adolf Closs in Stuttgart

THE remainder of the story of Columbus is a pathetic one. The wild and savage Spanish adventurers of that day needed for their control a man as brutal as themselves, one who would slay at a word. Columbus was too kindly. All the most reckless of the Spaniards crowded to join him in the second expedition which he led to America; a very different expedition this, of fifteen ships and fifteen hundred men. The adventurers were eager for the gold they expected to find; they defied their chieftain, they plundered and massacred the defenseless natives, they fought among themselves. The expedition discovered a few more islands, and sent some shiploads of natives to be sold as slaves in Spain. That was all. A third expedition fared even worse; and an official sent out to investigate arrested Columbus and sent him back to Spain in chains.

The captain of the ship that bore the fallen leader offered to remove the chains, but Columbus said they should remain to show the world how he had been rewarded. Queen Isabella, his best friend, died, and King Ferdinand, abandoning the discoverer as impractical, let him sink into poverty. He died in the convent of San Francisco in Valladolid in 1506. The last words of the broken and disappointed old man to the monks who stood around his bedside were those of the dying Christ, "Into Thy hands I commend my spirit." Seven years afterward the king erected him a gorgeous monument.

28-IIIA

watched for his return. Instead of attempting to run through their lines, he kept on up the Pacific shore, claiming California and the land to northward for England. At last the Arctic cold checked his progress, and heading still to westward, he skirted all Asia and Africa, and finally reached home after three years of wandering, having circumnavigated the globe.

By degrees, Englishmen concluded that in order to fight Spain in the Indies, they, too, must have colonies there, as stations at which their ships could refit and gather supplies and recruits. Queen Elizabeth encouraged the plan. English fishing boats had long frequented the Newfoundland banks. Martin Frobisher thought he had found gold there—tons of it—and the Queen sent him with a fleet of fifteen ships to found a mining station in the frozen North (1578). The men shivered and mutinied, the gold proved dross, and Frobisher returned home defeated.

Sir Humphrey Gilbert, the scholar, philosopher, courtier, and friend of Elizabeth, next attempted the task of colonization (1579). He planted England's flag on the bleak shores of Newfoundland, and asserted her supremacy over the rough fishermen of all nations who gathered there. But as a permanent settlement his first effort failed; so he tried again.

Some of his ships deserted in dread of the tempestuous northern seas; others were wrecked, and at last Sir Humphrey had to turn a second time toward home with only two remaining vessels. As he sailed, he planned a third expedition, which should profit by the mistakes of the first two; but alas! to encourage his soldiers, he himself stayed on his smaller boat, the "Squirrel," a mere skiff of ten tons burden. Tremendous tempests rose; never had mariners seen "more outrageous seas"; and one night the watchers on the other ship saw the lights of the tiny "Squirrel" suddenly disappear. Sir Humphrey Gilbert's hopes and plans were over (1584).

His step-brother, the famous Sir Walter Raleigh, now gave his energies to the work. He obtained ample powers and privileges from the Queen, and determined to devote his whole ability and fortune to establishing England's power in America. Two ships were sent out to find a fitting place for settlement in the more attractive regions farther south; and so glowing were the reports they brought home, that English enthusiasm somewhat revived. Elizabeth conferred the honor of knighthood upon Raleigh; and he, with courtier wisdom, named the region Virginia, in honor of his virgin Queen.

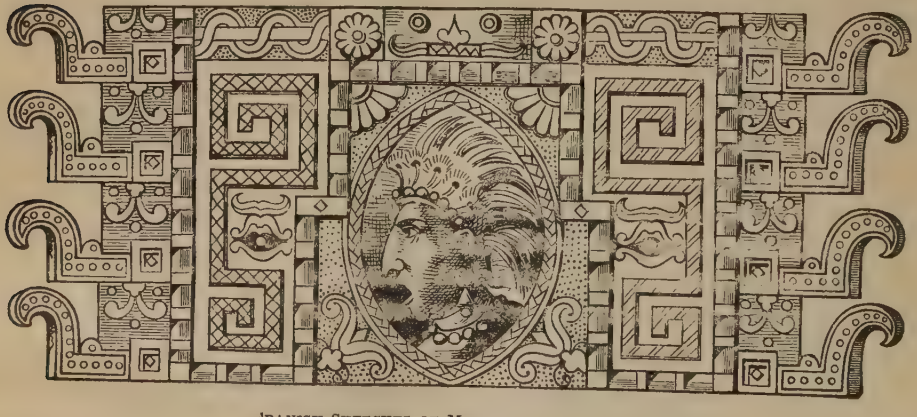
In 1585 he sent out an expedition of seven ships, which planted a colony on Roanoke Island, North Carolina. A hundred men stayed there over a year; but the Indians, at first friendly, were injured, were quarrelled with, were massacred. Promised supplies proved long in coming; the boats of the colonists were wrecked; and when Drake accidentally called with his fleet to see how

his friend Raleigh's colony was progressing, the terrified and despairing settlers persuaded him to take them home.

Raleigh, like Gilbert was not easily daunted. A second colony, which included women and children, was despatched to Roanoke (1587). Its governor was John White, and soon after his arrival his daughter, Mrs. Dare, gave birth to the first English child born in America, a girl, whom they named Virginia Dare. White soon returned to England for further supplies, leaving nearly a hundred people at Roanoke. He found Great Britain threatened by the mighty Spanish Armada. Every ship and every seaman was summoned to the defence of the country. Drake, Raleigh, and all, joined in the struggle. The invincible Armada was defeated, but it was over three years before White was able to return to Roanoke.

When he reached there, his colonists had disappeared. What became of them all, poor little Virginia Dare included, is one of the mysteries of American story. Perhaps they were massacred; perhaps driven by hunger and despair, they united with the Indians, and before White's coming had wandered inland. They are often referred to as "the Lost Colony."

White returned to England in sorrow; Raleigh was impoverished, ruined; and the enthusiasm for colonization, crushed by such repeated failures, seems for a time to have wholly disappeared. One hundred years after the voyages of the Cabots, the territory which they had discovered was still a wilderness, peopled only by the Indians.



SPANISH SKETCHES OF MEXICAN HEAD AND EMBLEMS

SMITH SAVED BY POCAHONTAS

Chapter IV

THE COLONIES THAT SUCCEEDED—VIRGINIA

[*Special Authorities:* Cooke, "Virginia"; Captain John Smith's Works; Thomas Jefferson, "Notes on Virginia"; Bruce, "Economic History of Virginia"; Drake, "The Making of Virginia"; "Virginia Magazine of History."]

BY the year 1600 the general outline of the earth and its continents had become fairly understood. The power of Spain had been broken by her long war with Holland and by the defeat of her "Invincible Armada." England had developed into a rich and powerful nation, and her population, during over a century of comparative peace, had so increased, that her leaders began to talk seriously of colonization as a relief from the overcrowding of the land.

It was, however, as a business venture that Bartholomew Gosnold sought our shores in 1602. He landed in New England, traded with the Indians, and brought home so rich a cargo as to attract general attention. Raleigh had still the Queen's grant as owner of all Virginia, and he promptly confiscated Gosnold's spoils. Raleigh, however, soon fell into disgrace with Elizabeth's successor, King James I., and his grant was revoked.

The fact that there was unmistakable profit to be derived from America, immediately placed the idea of colonization on a new basis. Other merchants traded here, and returned with goodly gains; and in 1606, under the authority of King James, the famous "Virginia Company" was

formed, and given exclusive rights to trade and colonize in "Virginia," which then meant all English America.

The company was essentially an organization of merchants, seeking mercantile profit, and interested in founding a colony only because that would afford a permanent base for organized trade. Two subdivisions of the partnership were made, and one of these, the "London Company," sent out three ships under Christopher Newport and the former trader, Gosnold. After exploring here and there, Newport landed and began building a fort at Jamestown, in the modern State of Virginia, May 13, 1607. This was the first permanent English settlement in America.

The prospects of success for this new colony seemed far less promising than had attended Raleigh's ventures. One hundred and five men were left behind by Newport when he returned to England in June; but among them there were no women, and most of the men were "gentlemen adventurers," who had come hither under the old delusion of quickly finding gold and returning with it to their homes. They were a shiftless lot, those "gentlemen adventurers," who scorned to turn their hands to raising grain or food. The first month of the settlement, which should have been devoted to planting food for the winter, was wasted in gold hunting.

Jamestown was built on the first spot that came to hand. It stood among marshes, the water was bad, provisions were scanty. Fifty of the little band, Gosnold among them, died during the summer, many of them of sheer starvation. The remainder were reduced to desperation.

One man and one only saved the colony from extinction. He was Captain John Smith. A romantic wanderer from his youth, and a bit of a braggart, Smith has been much discredited of late; but there can be no question of the great value of his services to America and Virginia. The nominal leaders of the colony had crowded him aside; but now through sheer strength of character he forced his way to the front. He was the only man who did not despair. He traded with the Indians, secured their friendship, and brought to the colony such supplies of corn as guaranteed them against starvation. He drove the men to building substantial houses and preparing for the winter. Those who did not work, he declared, should not eat; and he had his way, despite murmurings and rebellions from those who should have been the first to help him.

Toward winter Smith sailed far up the Chickahominy River exploring. He was captured by the Indians and brought before the head chief of all that region, the "Emperor" as the English learned to call him, Powhatan. Here Smith met the chieftain's daughter, Pocahontas, "a maid of ten." It was not until many years after her death that Smith told the well-known story of her

DE SOTO EXPLORES THE UNITED STATES

(He Discovers the Mississippi and Claims Its Shores for Spain)

From the painting by Wm. H. Powell in the Washington Capitol

THE Spanish explorers sailed along the coast of the mainland of the United States, as they did along other parts of the North American continent, but the first explorer to penetrate at all deeply into the interior of our own country was Ferdinand De Soto. At the head of an army of one thousand of Spain's most daring fighters, he landed in Florida in the year 1539, and set out in search of some inland Indian empire, the conquest of which might bring him gold and glory. But as De Soto advanced northward he found this country very different from that which Columbus and other Spaniards had explored in the south. Here the nights were often cold, the winters were bleak, the Indians possessed no wealth of gold or precious gems, they were but little civilized, and they were strong, fierce fighters.

De Soto's men marched all across the southern States from Florida to the Mississippi. Wherever they met the Indians, the latter attacked them; and though large numbers of the Indians were slain, the Spaniards suffered also. For more than two years their dwindling band marched onward, fighting and dying. They crossed the Mississippi and searched the prairies beyond; but nowhere did they find the wealth they sought. At length the exhausted remnant turned back. De Soto died as they reached the great river on their return, and was buried beneath its waters. His few surviving followers drifted down the river to its mouth and so escaped from the vast and deadly wilderness.

VIII-83

rescuing him from death at the hands of her father; and the delay of the narrator certainly rouses suspicion. In its final form, his tale is that the savages placed his head upon two stones and were about to crush it with a war-club, when Pocahontas threw herself between and insisted on his being spared. Be this as it may, Smith persuaded Powhatan to treat the colonists with friendship. Little Pocahontas came frequently to their camp. The Indians taught their new friends how to raise Indian corn and other plants. Pocahontas was converted to Christianity and in later years married a young gentleman among the colonists, John Rolfe. As his wife she visited England and died there in 1617 when about to return to America. Their descendants are still to be traced throughout Virginia. This fortunate alliance with the Indians preserved the English from their enmity, and was undoubtedly a potent cause in saving the colony from extinction during its early struggle.

For a time, however, failure seemed inevitable. Smith returning from his captivity in January, 1608, found only forty survivors at Jamestown, and these were preparing to sail for England in their one tiny boat. The resolute hero stopped them at the peril of his life. Plots, treachery, mutinies filled the entire winter, and Smith was at his wits' end, when Newport arrived with reinforcements in the spring.

But alas! the newcomers were of the same material as the first lot, "gentleman adventurers," who thought some iron pyrites they found was gold, and persuaded Newport to load his ship with it in all haste and return to England. Thereafter Smith ruled almost unopposed. During the winter of 1608 he explored and mapped out most of our coast between North Carolina and New Jersey.

By this time the mercantile "Company" in England began to grow impatient. Perhaps the shipload of worthless pyrites was the last straw; for the next spring they despatched to Smith angry orders to send home a valuable load of merchandise, or the colony would be abandoned, and the emigrants left to escape to England as they could. Accompanying the orders came another shipload of "gentlemen," and Smith wrote back impatiently and defiantly that the owners must first put the colony on a proper foundation, and that they had better send but thirty practised carpenters, gardeners, and so on, rather than "a thousand such as we have."

In the fall of 1609 Smith was so injured by a gunpowder explosion that he was compelled to return to England for treatment. He never saw Virginia again, but he had done his work there, a man's work, which had made a beginning to the American nation.

The winter which followed his departure was the most calamitous in the history of the colony. Further reinforcements had raised its number to five

hundred; but relieved of Smith's restraining hand, these indulged in every riotous excess, insulted and enraged the Indians, squandered their provisions, and escaped massacre only through the warning of Pocahontas. Then they had to face the starvation they had invited. It is said they even ate one another. At any rate, when supplies from England reached them the next spring, only sixty of the five hundred were found alive. This awful period was long known as the "Starving Time."

The survivors, as well as the newcomers, had no thought but to get away from the scene of such horrors. All crowded on board the two little barks which had arrived, and Jamestown was abandoned in despair (1610).

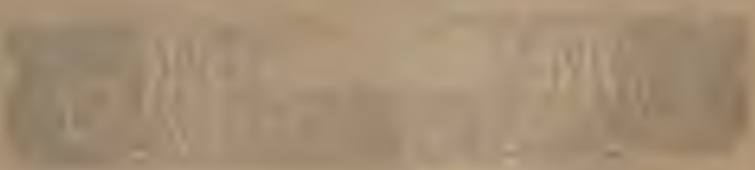
At the mouth of the James River the fugitives met three goodly ships under Lord Delaware. He had been appointed governor of Virginia, and had at last brought out not only sufficient supplies, but the proper class of colonists, artisans with their wives and families. He persuaded the despairing settlers to return, and from this time the colony entered on a second and more prosperous life.

During most of this second period, Virginia was under the governorship of Sir Thomas Dale (1611–1616), a stern but just and able ruler. He saw that the main reason why the settlers worked but languidly was that all the profits of their toil went to the Company. This left the workmen no incentive to produce anything more than was required for their bare existence. On his own responsibility, Dale gave every man a plot of ground, the produce of which was to belong to himself, to sell as he could. The colonist was also allowed a certain part of his time to devote to the cultivation of this plot. Instantly, each man felt an incentive to labor; the colony began to assume an air of prosperity.

We are not apt to think of Virginia as a specially religious land; yet some of the laws enforced by Dale would startle our sternest devotees of the present age. Every one had to leave work and go to church twice each day, through the week as well as on Sundays. Cursing was punished for the second offence by piercing the tongue with a bit of steel, for the third offence by death.

On Dale's return to England, a freebooter and half pirate, Samuel Argyll, was appointed governor. He quarrelled with the Indians and robbed the colonists, plundering and devastating everywhere, until ruin seemed come again. The feeling against him grew so intense that he fled from the colony with his ill-gotten gains.

With the year 1618 begins the later and really successful period of Virginia's development. As yet the colony had been nothing but a source of expense to its merchant founders. Most of these despaired of its ever being anything else, and sold out their shares in the losing investment. By 1618



POCAHONTAS

(The Indian Princess Rescues John Smith and Saves the Virginia Colony)

From a painting by the American artist, John G. Chapman

THE first successful colonizer to establish the English permanently within the limits of the United States, was that remarkable man, Captain John Smith. He was one of the colonists sent out to Virginia in 1607. When the nominal leaders of that tragic expedition had failed or perished, as did most of their followers, Smith took forcible command of the despairing remnant of the colony and carried it forward to success. He did this by securing the friendship of the Indians. Thus the English entered the new world not as conquerors like the Spaniards, but as suppliants, almost despairing suppliants, for the bounty of the Indians. Smith secured from them supplies which enabled the colonists to live until their own harvests were established.

These necessary supplies were not gained without serious danger. The story of Smith's rescue by Pocahontas is perhaps the most popular of our country's early tales. Smith had been seized by an Indian chief and was about to be slain, when the chief's young daughter, Pocahontas, interfered. Rushing to the block where Smith had been bound and where an executioner was about to dash out his brains, Pocahontas sheltered the victim with her own body and insisted that mercy should be shown him. Hence it was that her father not only spared the bold Englishman, but made friends with him.

VIII-86

the control of the "London Company" had fallen into the hands of the Puritans, men who were opposed to tyranny, who believed in the equal rights of all mankind and who, a generation later, cut off their king's head and made England a commonwealth. These men looked upon Virginia less as a source of profit than as an experiment in government, a weapon wherewith to fight King James. They offered such liberal inducements that settlers flocked to the colony, and its population sprang at a bound from hundreds into thousands.

Most wise and generous, and most far-reaching in result of all the changes made by these Puritan share-owners, was the granting to the colony of the right to govern itself. Hitherto it had been wholly in the hands of royal governors, who maintained their authority by military force. Now a "House of Burgesses" was authorized. This was an assembly to be elected by the colonists from among themselves. It convened in 1619, and marks the beginning of free government in America.

The one thing above all others, however, which made Virginia prosperous was the growth in the use of tobacco. Smoking is said to have been introduced into Europe by Raleigh and his colonists. It is certain that the custom was copied from the Indians; and it spread through Europe with a rapidity which no other conqueror, no more beneficent reform had ever equalled. America is the home of tobacco. The open plains of Virginia proved peculiarly suited to its growth. The colony became the chief supplier of the tobacco trade of the world, and its wealth was assured.

In 1619 the Puritan owners made another shrewd and business-like move for the success of their investment. They sent over a shipload of healthy girls, "ninety agreeable persons, young and incorrupt," to become wives to the colonists. The maidens were not exactly sold; but each man who took a wife was required to pay the company a heavy price for her passage from England. So welcome were the ladies, that the entire cargo was instantly paid for, and the marriages were celebrated on the spot. A second cargo was sent the following year. Adventurers who had always dreamed of a return to domestic happiness in England, settled down to make in Virginia a permanent family home.

A less desirable class of emigrants were the "indented" servants. These were at first criminals, whose punishment was their sale as slaves in America for a certain number of years. But so widespread became the desire of the overcrowded and homeless English poor, to reach this vast and comfortable Eden of the West, that many sold themselves voluntarily, agreeing to work in Virginia for sometimes as much as seven years, to pay their passage over.

Another memorable event which dates from this same important year of 1619, is the introduction of negro slavery into the colony. A Dutch trading

vessel happened into the James River with twenty unfortunate Africans on board. They were eagerly purchased by the richer colonists, and set to work upon the broad plantations which were everywhere springing up. Yet slavery progressed very slowly; in 1650 but two in a hundred of the population were African slaves.

And now came a new disaster, from which the infancy of the colony had been mercifully spared. The Indian "Emperor" Powhatan died. His people became fearful of the Europeans who were spreading so rapidly along the river banks, and crowding the ancient possessors of the soil back into the wilderness. A general massacre of the intruders was planned; and in March, 1622, the redmen burst like a thunderbolt upon the unprepared plantations scattered along the James River. Within a single hour nearly four hundred people passed from the bright security of happy life through the horrors of a bloody death.

Jamestown itself was saved, warned just in time by a converted Indian; and as the inhabitants marched out with their muskets, the feebly armed savages fled before them. Nevertheless, the blow seriously retarded the growth of the colony. Many of its more timid members returned to England; and the flow of emigration lessened. The picture that rose before the eyes of weary home seekers, was no longer the alluring vision of a peaceful paradise, but a nightmare of creeping, tomahawking savages. In Virginia itself the old terms of half contemptuous friendship between red and white passed away forever. From that time forward, the infuriated Englishmen hunted the Indians like wild beasts, and drove them to take refuge far off in the inaccessible depths of the wilderness.

We have no space to trace each step in the wavering growth of the colony. King James, eager for the profits of the tobacco trade and furious against the Puritan proprietors, took the ownership of the colony away from them in 1624. Toward Virginia itself, however, he professed great friendship, as did his son and successor King Charles I. The kings were content to gather the rich tobacco tax, and the colonists, leniently treated in every other direction, grew intensely loyal. They forgot their former Puritan benefactors, and in the English civil war espoused the cause of royalty. When Charles I. was beheaded (1649), Virginia refused to acknowledge the Puritan commonwealth, and declared the King's exiled son to be her sovereign. Royalists flocked thither, and the governor, Sir William Berkeley, seriously though unsuccessfully entreated the fugitive Charles II. to make Virginia his home and his dominion.

Cromwell was too busy in England to pay immediate attention to the defiant colony; but in 1652, he sent thither a powerful fleet. So stern were the

THE SHIPLOAD OF WIVES

(A Shipload of Women Come to Virginia and Make the Colony Permanent)

From an old American print

MEN may build houses but they must have women to occupy them, or there can be no permanent colonizing and no permanent life. Hence that first settlement of the English in Virginia was not an assured success until the quaint incident here depicted. In 1619 the merchants in England who were striving to make the colony a success, sent over a ship-load of young and virtuous women, ninety of them, to become wives to the colonists. So well-selected and charming were these young women, or so eager were the colonists for wives, that the entire cargo were seized upon instantly on their coming ashore. Weddings were performed upon the spot, and each eager bridegroom before escorting his bride to his plantation, paid the company upon the spot a goodly sum for his wife's passage across the Atlantic. Indeed, there were not enough brides to go round, and a second shipload was sent out with equal success the following year. Virginia became the permanent home of an English-speaking ing race who abandoned all thought of ever returning to England.

Thus the first English colony grew strong and prospered; and from it other colonies gradually spread out north and south, and peopled our Southern States.

VIII-87 From "Pioneers in the Settlement of America."

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threats it bore, and so liberal the terms of concession, that the House of Burgesses yielded. Virginia acknowledged the supremacy of the Commonwealth, and was left to govern itself in everything. Berkeley retired quietly from office. The colonists themselves elected his successor, and for eight years they were absolutely self-governing.

Yet they clung to royalty. On Cromwell's death they re-elected Berkeley to office, and hoped for the restoration of King Charles in England. When that event actually took place in 1660, the colonists celebrated it with enthusiasm. They immediately voted to restore the royal authority among themselves, and to accept a governor appointed by the King. In the first gratitude of his return to power, Charles thanked the Virginians warmly, continued Berkeley in office, and, quartering the arms of the colony with those of England, Scotland, and Ireland, declared it an independent and equal dominion of his empire. Indeed, as Virginia alone had proclaimed him king in 1649, it acquired the name it has ever since proudly borne—the "Old Dominion."

At the close of its first half century of existence, Virginia was thus become an important State. Its territory, which had originally extended from Pennsylvania to Georgia, had been reduced by clipping off Maryland on the north; and soon after the Carolinas were divided from it on the south. Yet even within its diminished bounds it contained a population of forty thousand. A second massacre had been attempted by the Indians in 1644; but the four hundred persons slain were no longer a vital loss to the prosperous State. The Indians were driven still farther into the mountain wilderness, and ceased to be a terror except to the far frontier planters upon the edge of the rapidly retreating forests.

The happy land soon found occasion, however, to repent its loyalty to King Charles II. He made use of the royal power which had been so trustingly restored to his hands, to claim absolute ownership of the colony; and he conferred the vast domain as a gift upon some of his profligate favorites. These looked upon it only as a source of income, and laid all sorts of taxes and restrictions upon the inhabitants. The colony, too strong now to be absolutely destroyed, was harassed, impoverished, and crippled in many ways. Its people, except for a few favored gentlemen, grew more and more embittered over the betrayal of their confidence. Yet so loyal had they been that, as we know, it took more than a century of oppression to drive them to the point of open rebellion against England.

A lesser revolt did occur in 1675, but it was not against the King but against Berkeley, the governor of their own choosing. As he grew old, Berkeley grew more bigoted and selfish. He was making a fortune out of the fur trade with the Indians, and he therefore favored and encouraged them, until

they once more began raiding the frontier settlements. The colonists called on him for protection, and he refused to send troops to stop the massacres. Then under the lead of a young and vigorous gentleman, Nathaniel Bacon, the frontier planters armed themselves and marched against the murderers.

Berkeley declared the little band rebels, and sent troops against them. A widespread civil war ensued, in which Bacon's superior energy and ability gave him continuous advantage, despite the governor's reinforcements from England. In 1676, Bacon burned Jamestown, that it might no longer be an abiding place for the royalists. The town was never rebuilt, and nothing but its charred ruins now remain to mark the site of Virginia's earliest settlement.

Bacon died in the autumn of 1676 and his followers, left without a leader, soon dispersed. Berkeley, restored to power, took a ferocious revenge, executing twenty-two of the chief men among the rebels. He would have gone still further had not the disgusted Charles II. recalled him to England. "The old fool," said the easy-going monarch, "has taken more lives in that naked country than I have in England for the murder of my father."

REPRINT FROM CAPTAIN SMITH'S "VIRGINIA"

HUDSON DRIVEN FROM HIS SHIP BY THE MUTINEERS

Chapter V

THE DUTCH IN NEW YORK

[*Special Authorities:* Lamb, "History of New York"; O'Callaghan, "New Netherland"; Schuyler, "Colonial New York"; Wilson, "Memorial History of the City of New York"; Brodhead, "New York."]

WHILE Virginia was thus growing strong, and learning the lessons of self-dependence and resistance to oppression, other colonies were springing up around her, and passing through similar experiences. New York was settled by the Dutch. Its bay and harbor may have been seen by earlier explorers; but the first who entered and examined it, was unquestionably Henry Hudson, an Englishman sailing in the service of Holland.

At the close of the sixteenth century, Holland had risen like a young giant from her long war of independence against Spain, and her thrifty merchants began to extend her trade over the entire globe. Their chief efforts were directed toward the East, where they took possession of Java, Sumatra, and other islands; and it was in the old attempt to find a route to these by piercing America, that Henry Hudson sailed into New York harbor in 1609. He advanced up the Hudson, deluded by the saltness of its waters into the hope that it was a strait like that of Gibraltar or the Bosphorus, connecting with the ocean beyond.

Disappointed in this, he yet found rich profit in trading with the Indians. All through the pleasant month of September he lingered along the river, leaving on record for us that he thought this "as fair a land as can be trodden

by the foot of man." He explored the river beyond the Catskill Mountains, and sent a small boat farther than the present site of Albany. The Indians near the ocean he found dangerous and warlike, but those along the upper river welcomed him with eager and cordial hospitality, and Hudson treated them with a wise friendliness. They were members of the great Iroquois tribe, or "League of the Five Nations," by far the most powerful combination of savages ever known in America.

Only a few weeks before, Champlain, the French explorer, guided by some Canadian Indians, had come from the north, down the lake which bears his name, and met some redmen of this same Iroquois League. To please his Canadian allies, Champlain had attacked the Iroquois, shot their chiefs, and with the magic thunder of his gun driven their terrified braves to flight. Perhaps their friends, whom Hudson met, had already heard of this. At any rate his kindly treatment made them firm friends of the Dutch. They entreated Hudson to return the following season; and in later years the whole Iroquois League, resting on the support of their Dutch or English allies in the south, defied the advance of the Frenchmen from the north. It has been rather extravagantly said that Champlain's shot settled the destiny of America. It certainly barred the southward progress of the energetic and warlike French, who might otherwise have been the first to enter all our Middle Atlantic States.

Little realizing the importance of his share in this confusion of cross purposes, Hudson sailed for home, satisfied because he had made a profitable voyage. On the way, he chanced to stop at an English port, where the authorities, jealous of any trade with America, detained him as an English subject. His ship they finally allowed to return to Holland; but the well-known captain, they insisted, must sail under a British flag. The next year, therefore, he came in a British vessel to hunt once more for the Chinese passage.

He searched this time in the far north, discovered the vast ice-bound Hudson Bay; and being determined not to return home unsuccessful, he wintered on the Arctic coast. In the spring, his exhausted crew mutinied, set him and his supporters adrift in an open boat, and fled back home. Hudson was never heard of again. How he perished is unknown; but legend says that he and his crew still linger as spirits round the Catskill Mountains which he discovered.

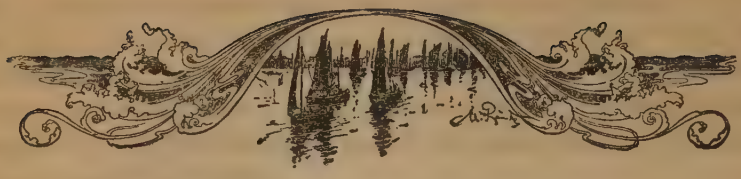
His Dutch employers sent other skippers to build up the profitable fur trade he had started with the friendly Indians. As early as 1614 huts were built on Manhattan Island, and Adrian Block explored Long Island Sound. In 1614 or 1615 Fort Nassau was built not far from the site of Albany, and a dozen men wintered there, gathering furs from the Indians. When a flood

JOHN SMITH IN NEW ENGLAND

His Ship is Attacked and Captured by Spaniards

From a painting by Pine (Corbis-Bettmann), Hunt

WHILE Virginia was thus prospering, she had
men, whose bold spirit had made her earliest
John Smith returned to England, and as ex
in New England. This company had sent a
the coast of Maine at about the same time that Vir-
was settled; but the colonists after terrible sufferings
fish a colony there in 1614. But the Spaniards claimed all
the Americas most, and with their
He planned an another expedition and got the English king
led into other fields (1614) and saw no more of America.



JOHN SMITH IN NEW ENGLAND

(His Ship is Attacked and Captured by Spaniards)

From a painting by the German artist, Hans Bohrdt

WHILE Virginia was thus prospering, she had lost the man whose bold spirit had made her earliest success. John Smith returned to England, and as explorer, adventurer, and trader, joined another English company, which was endeavoring to colonize the American coast farther north, in what is now New England. This company had sent a colony to the coast of Maine at about the same time that Virginia was settled; but the colonists after terrible sufferings abandoned their venture. There was among them no John Smith to force success from failure.

Then Smith came and explored the coast, and named it New England, and reported back to England enthusiastically about the land. He even on his own account started to establish a colony there in 1614. But the Spaniards claimed all the American coast; and while their ships seldom reached so far north, they just chanced to meet Smith's ship, and captured it.

The resolute adventurer was not daunted by this failure. He planned yet another expedition and got the English king to appoint him Admiral of New England; but then he was led into other fields of effort and saw no more of America. Hence the New England coast was not permanently settled until more than a dozen years after that of Virginia, though it must be remembered that there were always fishermen landing along its coast or wintering there, and a few trading expeditions groped cautiously along its shores.

VIII-88

destroyed the blockhouse, Fort Orange was erected near by, and became the nucleus of Albany.

These little trading stations must not be regarded as colonies. Holland, having won a peace with Spain, was rather hesitant about laying formal claim to any part of the new world, over all of which decaying Spain still asserted a shadowy right. The Hollanders, however, were proud of their acquired possession, named it New Netherland, and when they soon again quarrelled with Spain, they determined to make of New Netherland a permanent colony.

In 1623 one hundred and ten men, women, and children were sent out, and settled partly on Manhattan Island, but chiefly around Fort Orange at Albany. These first settlers were "Walloons," a race more French than Dutch, who had been driven from Flanders by religious persecution. They were well content with their new home. Other emigrants followed, and in 1626 Peter Minuit was sent out to reside in the colony as its permanent governor. He selected Manhattan Island as his residence and capital, and pursuing the policy of friendship with the Indians, purchased from them their right to the island. For its entire area he paid them a sum which his thrifty employers charged up as "sixty gulden," which is equal to about twenty-four dollars. That surface is now as valuable as if it were covered with gold.

The Fort Orange colonists did not get on well with the Indians, and Minuit called all but a small defensive garrison back to the region around Manhattan. He named his town there New Amsterdam, and, to command the harbor and the passage up the river, built a battery where the famous "Battery Park" now stands overlooking the Bay.

The colony's advance was slow, and to stimulate it the Holland proprietors evolved the "Patroon" system. According to this, any man who would at his own expense plant a colony of fifty persons in New Netherland, should become absolute lord or "Patroon" of his settlement and the territory on which it stood. Several prominent Hollanders took advantage of the offer, and the Schuylers, Van Rensselaers, and others acquired those enormous estates which some of their descendants hold to this very day.

Minuit was succeeded as governor by the slow and heavy Wouter Van Twiller (1633–1637), and he in turn by the peppery William Kieft. Kieft quarrelled with the colonies which had sprung up on either side of the Dutch, scolded vehemently at his own too stolid settlers, and plunged New Netherland into the only serious Indian war of its early history.

This was with the Algonquins, the tribe along the lower Hudson. Trouble with them grew more and more serious for some years. Then in 1643 a bolder tribe of Indians attacked the Algonquins, and they, forgetful of their lesser quarrel, fled to the Dutch for protection. Instead of giving it, Kieft

sent his soldiers stealthily against the frightened suppliants, attacked them suddenly in the night, near where Hoboken now stands, and slew over a hundred of them.

The infuriated Algonquins threw fear to the winds, and turning against the Dutch set all their outlying settlements in flames. It is to be noted that the war, which lasted two years, never disturbed the friendship between the Dutch and the more northerly Iroquois. The struggle broke the power of the Algonquins along the Hudson, but it also seriously injured the prosperity of the colonists. They hardly dared venture beyond New Amsterdam. Many were slain, and all suffered losses. Both sides were glad to make peace at last. Kieft was recalled to Holland, and was succeeded in 1647 by Peter Stuyvesant.

The name of Stuyvesant is better known than any other in the story of New Amsterdam. He was a valiant and fiery old fighter, whose wooden leg with its silver bands gained him the nickname of "Old Silver Leg." He wanted to rule everything and everybody; and the blame for every misfortune that happened to the colony was therefore heaped upon him.

The settlers in New Amsterdam had very little voice in their own government. They were completely under the authority of the company of Holland merchants who had sent them out, and this "Dutch West Indian Company" had no such liberal idea as had prompted the Virginian merchant owners to create the House of Burgesses. The people of New Netherland demanded from Stuyvesant some share in ruling the colony, and the old martinet told them they were fools to think they could govern themselves. They then appealed to the Holland owners, but these very positively agreed with Stuyvesant.

Their support of him in other respects proved less warm. The rapidly growing New England colonies crowded upon the Dutch outposts in Connecticut. Stuyvesant, after resisting all he could, appealed to the proprietors for support. Their only response was the very good though rather impractical advice, that he should keep at peace with his neighbors.

To the proprietors' honor it should also be recorded that, when the governor would have introduced religious persecution into the colony, they forbade it, saying, "Let every peaceful citizen enjoy freedom of conscience. This maxim has made our city [Amsterdam] the asylum for fugitives from every land. Tread in its steps and you shall be blessed."

Indeed, it is worth while to note the cosmopolitan character which New Amsterdam or New York assumed from the very beginning. In other colonies, people of one race and generally of one faith settled together. The Dutch, having suffered so much for their own nationality and religion, were lenient toward those of others. Refugees flocked to them. We are told that as early as 1643 there were eighteen different languages spoken in the city of New

Amsterdam. And some years later, a writer, after mentioning over a dozen religious sects, including Jews, that worshipped there in peace, adds very frankly, "In short, of all sorts of opinions there are some, and the most part of none at all."

The city began to indulge in dreams of greatness. In 1652 the merchants of Holland wrote it a congratulatory address saying, "When your commerce becomes established and your ships ride on every part of the ocean, throngs that now look toward you with eager eyes, will be allured to embark for your island."

Nevertheless, as a whole, New Netherland did not prosper. Whether because of the narrow selfishness of the owners, the lack of political freedom, Stuyvesant's severity, or the fear of the Indians, the colony remained a trading community rather than an agricultural one. Fifty years after its foundation, it contained only about seven thousand inhabitants; and the majority of these were within the limits of New Amsterdam.

As Virginia and New England, the colonies on either side of New Netherland, grew more valuable, the existence of the latter became a serious problem to the English. It split their possessions into two isolated parts. They had never thoroughly admitted the right of the Dutch to be there at all; and at last, in 1664, Charles II. felt strong enough to drive them out. He sent a fleet under Colonel Nicolls, who sailed into the harbor of New Amsterdam and demanded the surrender of the colony.

Governor Stuyvesant stormed, but the citizens refused to help him. They hoped perhaps for the same self-government that the English colonies enjoyed. They certainy feared the effects of a bombardment upon their houses and goods; and few of them displayed any anxiety to preserve the profits of the Holland Company. So they persisted in a stolid inactivity which made their fiery governor powerless, and he had no recourse but to surrender his fort and colony. Nine years later, during a war between Holland and England, a Dutch fleet appeared off the Bay; and the worthy burghers, who had not found the British rule quite such a paradise as they anticipated, readily retransferred their allegiance to Holland. In another fifteen months, a European peace passed them over once more into English hands, to remain there until the Revolution.

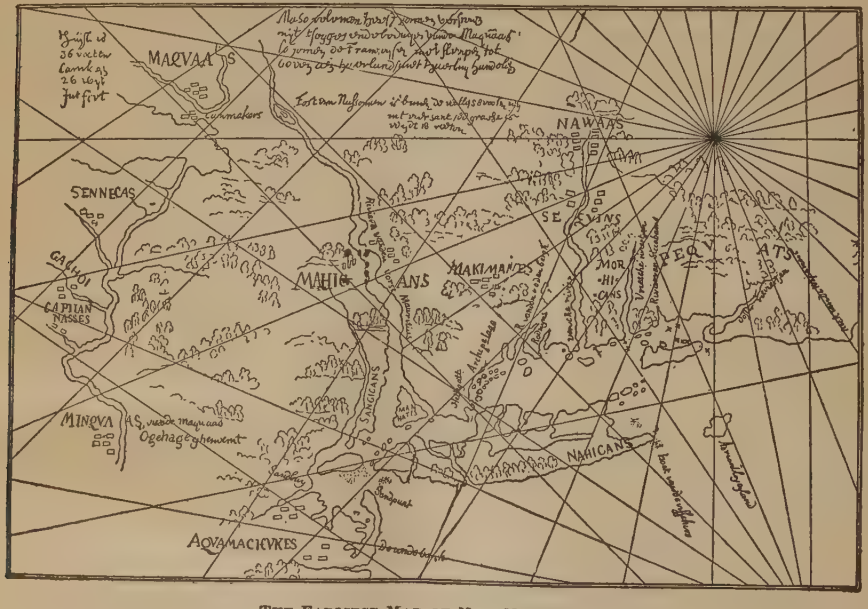
The English epoch in the story of the colony was fairly peaceful. King Charles presented the province as a gift to his brother James, the Duke of York, in whose honor its name was changed to New York. James left Colonel Nicolls, its captor, as governor until 1674, when Sir Edmund Andros succeeded him. Both were competent men. They encouraged commerce and gave the people a certain degree of self-government. But when the Duke of York became King in 1685, he proved himself a tyrant everywhere; and New York,

suffering with the other colonies, lost her shadowy independence. In England, James's tyranny cost him his crown, and the Dutch William of Orange succeeded to his throne as William III., 1688.

No sooner did news of this reach New York, than an uprising was headed by Jacob Leisler, a German shopkeeper and captain of militia. The evil officials of King James were driven out; and Leisler and his friends ruled the city for nearly three years. They made many enemies, and when at last (1691) Colonel Sloughter came out as a duly authorized governor from King William, Leisler and his chief adherents were tried for treason and sentenced to be hanged.

Their embittered enemies demanded their instant execution, but Governor Sloughter insisted on reprieving them until the whole matter could be referred to King William. Sloughter was, however, a heavy drinker, and some of the colonists, surrounding him while he was helplessly intoxicated, induced him to sign the death warrant. Before he had regained his senses, Leisler and his chief lieutenant were executed. King William vigorously condemned this, ordered a public funeral for the victims, and gave a pension to Leisler's widow.

From this time forward, New York was divided between two factions, whose mutual hatred was so deep that they were repeatedly on the verge of open warfare. From the democratic friends of Leisler descended the Whigs of the Revolution; from his aristocratic foes came the Tories.



THE EARLIEST MAP OF NEW NETHERLAND

BREWSTER PREACHING IN PLYMOUTH

Chapter VI

THE PILGRIMS AT PLYMOUTH

[*Special Authorities:* Fiske, "The Beginnings of New England"; Campbell, "The Puritans in Holland, England and America"; William Bradford, "History of Plymouth"; Palfrey, "New England"; Ellis, "Puritan Age in Massachusetts."]

LET us now turn to the New England colonies which, although only third in the order of settlement, soon outstripped both Virginia and New York in population, and became the chief centre of colonial life.

You will remember that the name Virginia was at first applied to all England's possessions in America, and the "Virginia Company" was formed to develop them. It was divided into two sections, the "London Company" which planted Jamestown, and a company of Plymouth merchants who were granted the land farther northward, and who also in the same year of 1607 endeavored to make a settlement within their territory.

They sent out a party under George Popham, who selected the mouth of the Kennebec River in Maine as the seat of his venture. The winter proved unusually severe. Popham died, and though his followers do not seem to have encountered sufferings anything like as severe as those of the Jamestown unfortunates, they had no John Smith to hold them to their purpose. They grew disheartened, and early in 1608 returned to England, to spread an evil report of the inhospitable coasts.

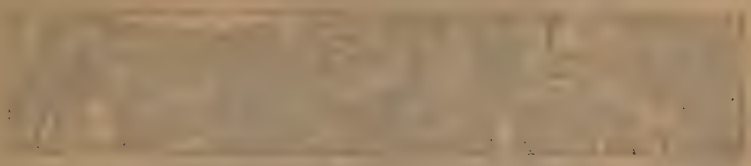
In 1614 Captain John Smith himself was employed by the Plymouth Company to go out to their territory; but he was sent only on a trading voyage. He made the trip prompt and profitable, and, exploring much of the coast, prepared a map of it which is still preserved. It was he who first gave to the region the name it has since retained, New England.

Smith was an enthusiastic believer in the future of America, and he undertook the colonizing of New England as a private venture. His ship was captured by the Spaniards, and his private fortune thus swept away. Nothing daunted, he devoted himself to trying to persuade others to make the attempt. But the discouragement spread by the Maine colonists was too profound, and though Smith received from the King the title of Admiral of New England, he could do nothing more.

The colonization of our northern States was reserved for sterner and loftier men, the "Pilgrim Fathers" as we call them now. These were a congregation of Puritans, that is, Protestants of a more extreme type than was approved by the English Church and King. So far did this particular congregation, under their minister John Robinson, go in refusing to obey the church laws of England, that King James I. looked on them as rebels and drove them from his kingdom (1608).

They did not come immediately to America, but fled to Holland, that general refuge from religious oppression. There in Leyden they resided for several years. Most of them were poor country yeomen, who had to support themselves by any rough labor they could find; and their leaders saw with anxiety that their condition in Holland became less and less prosperous. It seemed likely that they, or certainly their children, would be dispersed, and their nationality become merged into that of the Dutch. The wanderers were proud of their sturdy English race, and they determined to seek another home. The thoughts of all men at that time were turning toward colonization; and the Pilgrims, as this especial band began to be called, entreated King James for permission to settle in the wilderness of Virginia, that is, America. James gave his consent somewhat grudgingly, promising not to interfere with their religion if they behaved themselves; and a charter of settlement was then secured from the same company that had sent out the Jamestown emigrants.

Since the Pilgrims were poor, they made a commercial partnership with certain London merchants, who agreed to undertake the expenses of their transportation and supplies. In return, the greater part of the profits of the colony for seven years was to belong to the Londoners. Not all the congregation came over at once. Mr. Robinson himself remained behind with the older and feebler members; and one hundred and two of the younger and hardier Pilgrims under the spiritual guidance of their chief elder, William



HUDSON ENTERS NEW YORK BAY

(The Indians Watch Him from the Foot of Manhattan Island)

From a painting by the American artist, H. N. Cady

THROUGH this delay it came about that the second permanent colony along the North Atlantic coast of our country, was not made by Englishmen at all, but by the Dutch. Holland was at this time second only to England as a naval power. Spain's maritime strength was decaying, and that of France was only just begun. So Dutch trading ships, half merchant and half man-of-war came searching the new world. Most notable among these voyages was that of Henry Hudson, who in his good ship the "Half Moon," came in the year 1609 sailing up the waters of New York Bay.

Hudson was hoping, as so many of these early traders hoped, to find some way of passing the masses of islands which explorers still called "the West Indies," and penetrating beyond them to the real India, the land of spices. They did not yet realize that the intervening land was really a wholly separate continent stretching almost from pole to pole. So Hudson, finding the waters about New York all salt, hoped to penetrate through the mass of islands to a sea beyond. With this in view he sailed far up the Hudson while Indians watched him from Manhattan Island and the cliffs of the New Jersey shore. They even threatened him with attack. But he easily evaded them, managed to make friends and trade with them a bit, and returned to Holland to report the Hudson valley "as fair a land as can be trodden by the foot of man."

VIII-89

Brewster, were despatched with their pastor's prayers and blessings to make clear the way for their comrades.

After wearisome and anxious delays, this famous hundred and two finally departed from the English port of Plymouth in the "Mayflower," September 6, 1620. This was, of course, a late and unfavorable season for setting out; but the poor Pilgrims had no choice. The voyage was an unusually long and stormy one, and some of the fainter hearts were for turning back. It was not until November 9 that they sighted land off Cape Cod.

The purpose of the colonists had been to settle somewhere between the Hudson and Delaware Rivers. That territory was now claimed by the Dutch, and perhaps the captain of the "Mayflower" had some understanding with Holland. At any rate, he claimed that contrary winds made it impossible for him to drive his ship to the southward of Cape Cod; and so perforce the Pilgrims landed on New England's shore. On such slight chances hangs the future of nations.

Now the Pilgrims, having procured their charter of settlement from the southern branch of the Virginia Company, had no authority whatever to occupy land in New England. They were mere "squatters," vagrants driven there by the necessity of adverse winds, or a too cautious sea-captain. The London Company that would have governed them in the south, had here no jurisdiction; so they were under the necessity of forming a government of their own. Realizing this, they met in the cabin of the "Mayflower" and drew up a solemn compact of self-government. The Virginia House of Burgesses already existed, but that had been a gift to the people from the London Company. This "Mayflower" compact was the first written agreement in history made by a free people for their own government.

The famous document was signed by every adult male among the Pilgrims. The whole number of signatures is forty-one, so that over half the little band were women and children. William Brewster, it is to be noted, was merely their spiritual guide without authority in earthly matters. They elected Deacon John Carver to be their governor for one year.

Over a month was spent in searching the coast for a fitting place to settle, and finally on December 11, the men landed at Plymouth, and began building houses. The winter proved mild for New England, but the colonists were not accustomed to the climate, and their food was poor and scanty. Lung diseases developed, and half the band, including Governor Carver, perished before spring. William Bradford was elected to succeed him. Bradford and Miles Standish, the soldier, proved the real leaders of Plymouth.

Under their encouragement the Pilgrims determined to persevere despite the awful visitation of death amongst them. In April the fateful decision was

made. and the "Mayflower" was sent back to England without them, to bring over their friends. A shipload of these arrived during the summer.

That first winter had been the period of trial, and after it the Pilgrims were fairly prosperous. They were by no means the first white men to land in New England. As we have seen, trading and fishing ships had been fairly numerous along the coast. The Indians had learned to know and to fear the whites, and at first kept carefully away from these newcomers. They appeared in the distance, but all the friendly gestures of Standish and his men could bring them no closer. When, however, they realized that the Pilgrims were not kidnappers, but intended to stay permanently among them, their attitude changed.

Probably it was a fortunate thing for the colonists that a terrible pestilence had swept over the New England Indians a few years before. Of the tribe that formerly lived in the immediate neighborhood of Plymouth, we are told that but a single member survived. Him the Pilgrims found later and made welcome among them. The first Indian they met, however, was a wanderer, Samoset, who in the early spring of 1621 walked out of the woods and saluted them in their own tongue, "Welcome, Englishmen." He had learned a few words from well-disposed British fishermen on the Maine coast, and he showed no fear of the white men. The favorable reception he met with at Plymouth soon induced his chieftain, Massasoit, to follow him; and a treaty of alliance was made between their tribe, the Wampanoags, and the Pilgrims.

Massasoit was to New England what Powhatan was to Virginia. For nearly fifty years he remained the colonists' staunch ally. He was not, however, the most powerful of the New England chiefs. Indeed, he himself had need of the Pilgrims' alliance, as a defence against Canonicus, the mighty sachem of the Narragansetts, a tribe of several thousand fighting men, whose land lay to the southward toward modern Rhode Island and Connecticut.

In 1622 Canonicus despatched a rattlesnake skin and a bundle of arrows to the colonists. This was an unmistakable threat of war, and sturdy Governor Bradford filled the skin with powder and shot as a reminder of the superior weapons of his people, and sent it back in defiance. It should, in fact, be kept carefully in mind that at this period the Indians were utterly incapable of waging open war against Europeans. Their stone arrows rapped harmlessly against steel breastplates, their stone tomahawks broke upon steel helmets; while against the far-reaching bullets they had no defence. Their only chance lay in secret ambuscades, which might catch these terrible white men without their arms. It was such an assault that Canonicus began secretly to contemplate.

A more immediate danger threatened the colonists from the dissatisfaction of their London merchant partners. No profits came to these men from their

THE PURCHASE OF MANHATTAN

(Peter Minuit, First Governor of the Dutch Colony, Buys the Land from the Indians)

From the painting by the contemporary American artist, Alfred Fredericks

HUTS were built upon Manhattan Island by the Dutch traders as early as 1614; and some of their men wintered in the new land year after year. The decision to claim a permanent right to the territory, to colonize it and hold it forever in defiance of the far-reaching claims of Spain, was not reached until 1623. In that year was undertaken the step which marks permanent colonization, the sending out of women settlers along with the men.

The beginnings having thus been successfully established, Holland in 1626 sent out a regular official to reside in the new colony and act as governor. This was Peter Minuit, celebrated for carrying out what was perhaps the most remarkable real estate deal ever duly authenticated. Minuit was determined to keep on friendly terms with the Indians, so he gathered their chiefs and in return for a quantity of cloth and beads and other wares secured from them an agreement that all Manhattan Island was to belong to the Dutch. The value of that land to-day soars into unreckonable billions of dollars; the value of the goods the shrewd Minuit paid for it, he charged upon his books as twenty-four dollars. Yet the transaction was not unfair to the Indians, for the new goods which they received were to them a marvelous fortune in comfort and delight. Thus Dutch and Indians began the settlement of the ancient island of Man-hat-ta in mutual good-will.

VIII-90

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business enterprise, and they began to look with sour minds upon the Pilgrims. When the beloved Leyden minister, Robinson, would have gone to his congregation, the merchants stopped him, declaring they wanted no trouble with King James, and would encourage no more religious rebellion. The unhappy pastor tried repeatedly, but never could reach his flock in America.

Other colonists, however, were sent out by the merchants, and were not at all welcome to the Pilgrims. The newcomers were wild adventurers, who came solely for gain and scoffed at the serious religion of Plymouth. After draining the Pilgrims of all the supplies that Governor Bradford would yield, the adventurers scattered along the coast, founding settlements of their own. The principal one of these was Weymouth, near Boston. Its members ill-treated and plundered the Indians, and it was upon them that the Indians determined to launch their first vengeance. Could the assault have been kept secret, as they intended, it must have been successful; but Massasoit revealed it to the Pilgrims, and despite their small liking for the Weymouth men, they determined to save them.

With only eight soldiers to accompany him, but with strong heart and resolute brain, Miles Standish marched north through the wilderness threading his way among the Indians. He reached the imperilled settlement and organized its defence. A number of Indians were slain, including one of their leading chiefs, and Standish returned to Plymouth in triumph, with the chieftain's head borne upon a pole. The only comment Pastor Robinson made upon the fight when his congregation wrote him word of it, was that he regretted Captain Standish had not attempted to convert a few of the Indians before slaying them.

The Weymouth colony soon broke up, and most of its dissatisfied members returned to England; but another party of settlers coming out in 1625 established themselves not far from the same spot. Their command devolved upon Thomas Morton, who called his settlement Merry Mount, and proceeded to make merry there with his followers, after the old English fashion. They erected a Maypole and danced and sang and drank liquor about its foot. Whether it was this that offended the solemn Puritans, or whether because of the more serious charge that Morton sold rum and firearms to the natives, they determined to employ forcible measures to be rid of him. Captain Standish marched his resolute little company of soldiers against Merry Mount, broke up the settlement by force, and shipped its leader back to England.

By this time the Pilgrims were at daggers drawn with their London partners. At first the colonists had honestly tried the same communal system which had been essayed in Virginia. That is, all land was held in common, all labored together, and the produce and profit went into a common stock,

most of which was for the benefit of the London merchants. But it was soon found that even Puritans would not work very hard for other people. The land had to be divided and each man given a plot of his own. This naturally failed to meet the approval of the London merchants, and finally in 1627 the shares of these were purchased by a few leading settlers. The colony became self-owning as well as self-governing. The Pilgrims could now invite whom they would, to join them. Members of their own sect were brought over. The population increased rapidly, and the prosperity of the colony became assured.

NEW ENGLAND INDIAN WITCH DOCTOR

DESTRUCTION OF THE PEQUOD STRONGHOLD

Chapter VII

MASSACHUSETTS BAY

[*Special Authorities:* Barry, "Massachusetts"; Governor John Winthrop, "New England"; Goodwin, "The Pilgrim Republic"; Adams, "Three Episodes in the History of Massachusetts"; Judge Sewall's Diary; Upham, "Salem Witchcraft"; Ellis, "Indian Wars."]

THE oft-told tale of the devoted heroism and ultimate success of the Leyden Pilgrims at Plymouth must not be allowed to overshadow the really far more important settlement that was made to the northward of them. Boston and Plymouth are now cities of one State, but they had at first nearly a century of existence as separate commonwealths.

From 1622 onward a few scattering settlers, as we have seen, located around Boston Harbor. In 1628 quite a colony of Puritans came over under John Endicott and settled at Salem. In that year there began also a far more important movement.

Charles I. had come to the throne of England, and the Puritan or popular party there found themselves so depressed that they began to talk, as the Huguenots of France had once done, of a wholesale emigration to America. They secured a charter from the King; and in 1630 fifteen shiploads of them, comprising upward of a thousand people, sailed for Endicott's settlement on Massachusetts Bay.

These thousand emigrants were not the down-trodden, impoverished victims of persecution, such as landed at Plymouth. They were many of them men of wealth and education, of rank and social connections. Their ships bore all

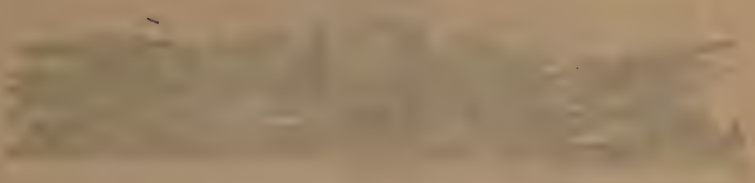
that a colony might be supposed to need. John Winthrop, whom they chose as their governor, might from his own servants and personal connections have planted a settlement as large as Plymouth. Neither were they such extremists in religion as the Plymouth refugees, though their very action in abandoning England stamps the Puritans of Boston as among the most resolute and hardiest of their faith. They had many ministers among them, and some of these ranked with the ablest and most learned of England's churchmen. The clergymen were, indeed, the chief men of the colony; it was, as its members themselves declared, a theocracy, that is a government in the name of God, to be ruled by the laws of religion.

One other fact about this solemnly founded state of the British Puritans deserves consideration. The earlier colonies had been, nominally at least, governed by mercantile companies residing in England, and authorized to make such laws as they saw fit for their distant possessions. The great Puritan emigration to Boston Harbor began under a similar charter; but in this case the men of wealth and influence who procured the charter came to the colony themselves. Every adult male who of his own free will joined the colonists, was made a member or "freeman" of the company. Thus its owners and governors resided not in England but America; and though in name a mercantile company, in truth it was a republic, privileged by its charter to make what laws it would. This charter became to the descendants of the colonists the most valuable and the most prized of their possessions.

The colony was known as that of Massachusetts Bay, and the town of Boston became its port and the centre of its government. The first comers met the same difficulty as those at Plymouth in accustoming themselves to the climate. Over two hundred of them perished the first winter; a hundred more returned to England in despair. But the survivors were not to be discouraged. Emigration languished for a year or two; then additional severity in England revived it, and the discontented Puritans began to flock to Massachusetts. By 1640 twenty thousand of them had come over to join the new commonwealth.

The flourishing young State began to send out colonies of its own. Connecticut, Rhode Island, and the other New England States were mainly settled by this overflow from Massachusetts Bay. Some pioneers reached even to New Netherland, and caused its watchful governors, Kieft and Stuyvesant, such uneasiness as we have seen.

Meanwhile, Governor Winthrop and the ministers encountered no little trouble in guiding their infant theocracy. It was found that such stubborn consciences could not all agree. Men quarrelled over points of religious doctrine, which may seem trivial and scarce understandable to-day, but to them



THE END OF DUTCH RULE

(Stuyvesant Tries Vainly to Rouse His Burghers to Resist the English)

From a painting by the American artist, Wm. H. Powell

GOVERNOR PETER STUYVESANT was the most noted figure in the history of old Dutch New York. He was a one-legged soldier, "Old Silver Leg" they used to call him, who ruled the colony with a rod of iron. When at his first coming the burghers of New Amsterdam demanded some share in their own government, he refused them with scorn and vehemence, telling them they were meddling fools to seek to interfere with his far wiser rule. For seventeen years he allowed no voice but his own to have any say in affairs. He extended the power of the colony and also its territory, driving out the Swedes who ventured to settle near him in New Jersey, and fighting with the English for possession of Connecticut.

At last, however, there came a time when he had to appeal to his discontented burghers for assistance. In 1664 a powerful English fleet appeared in the harbor of New Amsterdam and demanded the surrender of the entire colony. The city was ill armed and wholly unprepared. Yet the fierce Stuyvesant declared he would never surrender, and appealed to his colonists to help him in defending their homes. They declined flatly to attempt the impossible. At heart they were just as willing to be ruled by England as by their domestic tyrant. So, though the governor raged and stormed, he could do nothing. The rule of the colony was surrendered to the English, and its name was changed to New York.

VIII-92

were matters of the most vital import. The great principle of religious toleration was not fully understood as yet, and so the settlers turned persecutors in their turn.

Flogging, ear-cropping, branding, and at length in the case of the Quakers, death by hanging, were among the penalties inflicted for religious offences. Proclaimers of unsanctioned religious views were banished from the colony, either sent back to England or driven into the wilderness to depend upon the mercy of the Indians.

Difficulties also arose with the English crown. King Charles I. began to awake to the gravity of what he had done, began to fear this nursing-house of political and religious rebellion which he had permitted to be founded in America. As early as 1634, he appointed a commission which summoned the Massachusetts colony to return its charter for revision. No answer was given to this demand. Rather than obey, the governing council at Boston seems even at that early period to have determined on open revolt and independence. They knew the difficulty the King would find in transporting ships and armies to their shore; and they began military preparations, erecting fortifications, gathering powder and training their militia. All the colonists were warned that if war came, they must swear allegiance to Massachusetts Bay, not to the King, and this was to be enforced under penalty of death. Thus, a hundred and fifty years before the final Revolution, the Puritans of Massachusetts were prepared to make the break. Here was indeed a hot-bed of irrepressible revolt which King Charles had so unwittingly encouraged!

Perhaps it was fortunate for the warlike little colony, that matters did not at that time come to a final issue. The men who guided its destinies were diplomats as well as fighters, and without actually refusing to surrender the charter they managed to delay matters. They sent representatives, who pleaded and argued from law-court to law-court. Meanwhile, the Puritan party grew so strong in England itself that King Charles had no time to think of far-off New England. He had to face civil war with his Parliament, and at last, as you know, he very literally lost his head.

The military force which Massachusetts had drilled, proved of great use against the Indians. There was no trouble with the Narragansetts who had threatened Plymouth. These as well as the nearer and smaller tribes had learned the power of the white men too well to molest them. A more distant nation, the Pequods, who lived along the Connecticut River, had less palpable knowledge of the strength of the whites. The few outlying pioneers who ventured into Connecticut had much trouble with the redmen, who finally, in 1637, burst into open war.

It was feared that the Narragansetts would join the Pequods, and Massa-

chusetts despatched hasty word to Roger Williams, a man whom its sentence of exile had driven among the Indians, entreating him to use his influence with the Narragansetts to prevent the confederacy. Williams made a wild voyage over stormy waters in an open canoe, in mid-winter, to the stronghold of the Narragansetts. The Pequod ambassadors were already there with bloody hands and fiery eloquence, pleading with Canonicus, the great chieftain, to join them. For three days Canonicus wavered and Williams' life seemed at the mercy of the enraged Pequods. At last, however, his entreaties and pacific counsels prevailed, and the Pequods were left to take the warpath alone.

The force of eighty white men who first went against them, were mainly from Connecticut settlements, though some were sent by Massachusetts Bay. Under Captain John Mason the little band attacked the principal town of the Pequods, and after a desperate struggle burned it and slew some six hundred of its people. Many of the white men were wounded, but only two were slain, so immeasurably did their guns and breastplates raise them superior to their naked adversaries. A large force of Massachusetts Bay men soon arrived to help their friends; but as Mason himself says, the remainder of the war scarce deserved the name of fighting. The Pequods were practically exterminated, and the few survivors of the race were sold as slaves.

It was this war which first turned the thoughts of members of the various New England colonies to the idea of union. Massachusetts Bay, Plymouth, the Connecticut towns, and New Haven, which was then a frontier colony by itself, formed a confederation in 1643. A federal council was appointed, consisting of two members from each colony. As Massachusetts Bay contained a population far larger than the other three put together, she felt her small representation in the council to be unfair. Her two delegates frequently refused to be outvoted by the other six, and the feebler members of the league had perforce to give way and follow the will of Massachusetts. For twenty years, however, the "United Colonies of New England" were the strongest power in America. Then in the face of more serious difficulties, the members of the league ceased to act together.

These difficulties arose from the overthrow of the Puritan Commonwealth in England, and the restoration of Charles II. to the throne of his father. During the period of the English Commonwealth, Massachusetts Bay, even more than Virginia, had acted as an independent State. Immigration from England had almost ceased after 1640. Indeed, the tide rather flowed the other way, many prominent Puritans like the governor, Sir Harry Vane, returning from the colony to take part in the English war. Massachusetts Bay never took any oath of allegiance or submission to Cromwell, as Virginia did. Perhaps that was not considered necessary from such staunch Puritans; but when mem-

THE PURITANS LEAVE HOLLAND

(The First Company of the Puritan Settlers of New England Set Forth from Their Exile in Holland)

From a painting by the English artist, Charles Cope

BEFORE England thus seized possession of the new-world colony planted by the Dutch, she had built up another colony of her own, destined to be the strongest of them all, the leader at least temporarily in the founding of the independent American Union. This colony was Massachusetts or rather New England, the region of which Massachusetts was the center and Boston the metropolis.

The Dutch had also their part in the founding of Massachusetts; for it was first regularly settled by English religious exiles who, being forced to flee from England, settled in Holland. Finally the English king promised to leave their religion alone, if they would return to his dominion and settle in an English colony in America. This they agreed to do, and so set out from the little Dutch town of Delft and voyaged to England and thence to New England in their search for religious liberty.

Not all of them were able to leave Holland at once. They had only one seaworthy ship, the "Mayflower." Hence their leader and pastor, Mr. Robinson, remained behind with most of the exiles, sending off the pioneers with earnest prayers and promises to follow them when opportunity should come. The leader of those who actually set out was their "Elder," William Brewster. The men who ultimately became their chief commanders were William Bradford and the soldier, Miles Standish.

VIII-93

bers of the Puritan Parliament offered to pass any legislation for the colony which its people might desire, the shrewd men of Massachusetts declined to have any laws enacted at all, lest these should afterward be quoted as a precedent, giving Parliament the right to interfere in the colony's affairs.

The restoration of the English monarchy in 1660, therefore, was received in Massachusetts with very different feelings from those which it roused in royalist Virginia. The news was first brought to Boston by two of the fleeing regicides, that is, members of the court which under Cromwell had condemned Charles I. to death. These men, now in peril of their own lives, turned to Puritan New England for refuge. The English government demanded their arrest; but the colonial officers managed to let them escape, and they remained securely hidden in one of the more distant settlements.

Meanwhile, a year and a half after Charles II. was restored, Massachusetts grudgingly acknowledged his sovereignty, at the same time asserting plainly her right of self-government, and petitioning him to reaffirm her charter. It was really a struggle of wits, for the King knew exactly what value to put upon this belated recognition of his power. Indeed, it was openly said among his courtiers that the confederacy of the New England colonies had been formed, not against the Indians, but against the King, and that Massachusetts Bay in particular was ready to league with the Spaniards, or do any other desperate thing to achieve her independence of England.

Therefore the crafty King decided to move slowly. He sent the colonists vague letters of friendship, and avoided any explicit statement either for or against the rights they claimed. In 1664 the fleet which drove the Dutch from New Amsterdam, stopped first at Boston. It bore commissioners authorized to regulate charter affairs in New England. Thus driven into a corner, confronted by a deliberate attempt to interfere with her charter, Massachusetts Bay refused to recognize the royal commission.

It had been hoped that the fleet would overawe the rebels, but its commander had neither the strength nor the orders to proceed to absolute force, and he sailed on to New Amsterdam. With the purpose of isolating Massachusetts Bay, the other colonies around her were treated with special favor. But the men of Boston refused to yield an inch; and the commissioners after many angry and exciting efforts to assert themselves, returned helpless to England.

The breach between King and colony grew ever wider, and Massachusetts flatly refused to obey more than one of his commands. Fear and laziness kept Charles from punishing this defiance by armed force. He had no wish to start another rebellion, and the strength of Massachusetts seems to have been much overrated in England. The marvellous, sudden up-springing of the colony with its well-built towns, its well-governed people, its many ships and

flourishing trade, had given rise to a whole crop of exaggerated tales about its wealth and power. So King Charles, making light of obstinate words, sought to overcome this "peevish folk" by fair flattery and subtle devices.

Then came King Philip's war, revealing how weak the colonies really were. This was the most terrible Indian war of colonial history. The savages had by degrees procured guns from the French and Dutch, and perhaps sometimes from English settlers as well. They had learned to handle the weapons too, and could at last meet the whites on something approaching equal terms. Massasoit, the staunch friend of New England, had died at a venerable old age, and his son, whom the colonists called King Philip, ruled over the Wampanoags and their allied tribes. He was both suspected and feared by the whites, yet there is hardly proof that he formed a deliberate plot against them. There were aggressions upon both sides, and finally his young braves could no longer be restrained, but flared into sudden and furious war (1675).

Once launched upon his desperate course, Philip displayed remarkable ability; indeed he has been ranked as one of the greatest men produced by the Indian race. He succeeded in drawing almost all the tribes of New England to his side. They burst in fury upon the settlers, and farms were burned, and women and children tomahawked, from Maine to the borders of Connecticut.

In most of these assaults the Indians made no attempt to stand against the whites in the open field. They followed what has since become the traditional warfare of their race, creeping like snakes through the forests, attacking solitary houses, firing from ambush behind trees. When, however, a sudden rush seemed likely to be successful, they did not hesitate. The defence of Brookfield (August, 1675) forms a story as thrilling as ever Indian writer has imagined. For three days such of the Brookfield settlers as escaped the first charge of the savages, defended their little blockhouse against shots, rushes, flaming arrows, and a wagon of burning hay pushed against the door. Their scouts sent for help were cut off. Finally one man made an almost miraculous dash through the surrounding savages, reached Boston and brought help. Eighty Indians were slain in this bloody little fray.

Another well-known tale is that of Hadley, where the frightened and bewildered settlers were falling back before the Indian rush, when a stern and aged commander with long gray beard appeared suddenly among them, organized and directed the resistance, and led a charge before which the savages fled pell-mell. Then the deliverer disappeared. Legend long regarded him as an angel, but we know now that he was General Goff, one of the hunted "regicide" judges, who had lain securely hidden in Hadley.

Generally the Indians were more successful. One body of eighty fighting men guarding a convoy against the Indians, were completely cut off near Deer-

SETTLEMENT OF NEW ENGLAND

(The Returning "Mayflower" leaves the Puritans to Their Fate)

From a painting by the American artist, A. W. Bayes

IT was chance or possibly secret treachery that brought the exiled Puritans to New England. When their ship the "Mayflower," set out upon its voyage, they purposed to land somewhere in the south, between the settlements already begun in New York and Virginia. But they started late in the year, the weather was stormy, the passage slow; and when the ship's captain finally reached the New England coast, he vowed it was impossible to go further. There is a chance that he had been bribed by the Dutch not to let his settlers establish themselves too near the Dutch possessions on the Hudson. Thus the Puritans found themselves set down in December on the bleak coast of New England, not far from where previous attempts at colonization had failed because of the terrible winters, in a land where only hardy fishermen had lived, and where even the resolute John Smith had failed to build a colony. Moreover the Puritans had no right whatever to settle in this land. Their agreement with the English king directed them further south and he had granted this region to another company.

Hence it was with many misgivings and only under stress of compulsion that the little band of Puritans settled themselves at Plymouth on the Massachusetts coast. Half of them perished before spring. Then in April their ship returned to England. The cruelly suffering survivors discussed returning with the ship, but finally resolved to remain and face every hazard.

VIII-94

field at a little stream, still called Bloody Run. At length the powerful tribe of the Narragansetts, tempted by Philip's successes, joined him; and the New England colonists felt that their hour of supreme trial had come.

By great exertions, an army of over two thousand men was raised and half of these under Josiah Winslow, the Governor of Plymouth, marched against the Narragansett stronghold at South Kingston, Rhode Island. The fortress there was the strongest known in Indian history, standing in the midst of a swamp and approached by a pathway of loose logs. It contained perhaps three thousand warriors, and the fight for its possession (December 19, 1675) was the most obstinate and desperate, as well as the most important, Indian battle in colonial history. It was not until their cabins were hopelessly aflame, and their huge stock of provisions destroyed, that the Narragansetts fled in despair. How many of them were slain was never known. Over two hundred of the whites were killed or wounded, and the survivors retreated in haste from the scene of desolation.

Another similar, though less crushing, defeat was inflicted on the Indians at Deerfield in central Massachusetts, after which they gave up the struggle. Most of them sought peace at any price. King Philip, however, rejected all terms. At the head of an ever dwindling band of followers, he kept up his ravages upon the settlements until late in the summer, when one of his own men betrayed his hiding place. He was surrounded, and in his effort to escape was shot by a hostile Indian. With his death ended this bloody war, which had lasted over a year, and had cost the colonies the lives of six hundred of their troops, who were the sturdiest of their young men, besides all the massacred women and children. The money loss was probably half a million dollars, an enormous sum for those days. On the other hand, the power of the Indian tribes in New England was broken forever, and most of the redmen disappeared.

The colony of Massachusetts Bay had refused all help from England during this trying time. Her very independence was now imputed to her as a crime, and advantage was taken of her weakness and exhaustion. She was once more formally commanded to surrender her charter. Once more, though helplessly now, and in desperation, she refused. The King instituted a lawsuit against her in an English court completely under his control. The case dragged on for years owing to the distance of the colony and the King's constant hope that the people would yield to the inevitable. Finding that no lesser step would do, the court in 1684 finally declared the charter void. To soothe the angry people, one of their own number was appointed as the royal governor of the colony, and his rule was accepted in sullen despair.

Just at this period King Charles died, and King James II., an obstinate and uncompromising tyrant, succeeded him. Sir Edmund Andros was ap-

pointed governor of all New England, and he ruled it in the spirit of his royal master. For three years there was increasing tumult in Massachusetts Bay. Then came the second English revolution, which brought William III. into power; and the people of Massachusetts promptly seized Andros, made him a prisoner, and packed him off to England.

King William granted Massachusetts a new charter, though one that retained both royal and parliamentary power over her, and left her therefore less free than in the early days. It was at this time that Plymouth was united to Massachusetts Bay, and the two were made into a single colony. For half a century thereafter their career was one of almost uninterrupted prosperity. No serious shock affected them, if we except the witch craze which started at Salem in 1691, and in the course of a few months produced over four hundred accusations of witchcraft and twenty executions.

After 1660, emigration from England had somewhat revived, the natural increase of population was rapid, and it is estimated that before 1700, New England probably contained over 100,000 people, of whom 70,000 were in Massachusetts. "God," wrote its Lieutenant-Governor Stoughton, "sifted a whole nation that He might send choice grain over into this wilderness."